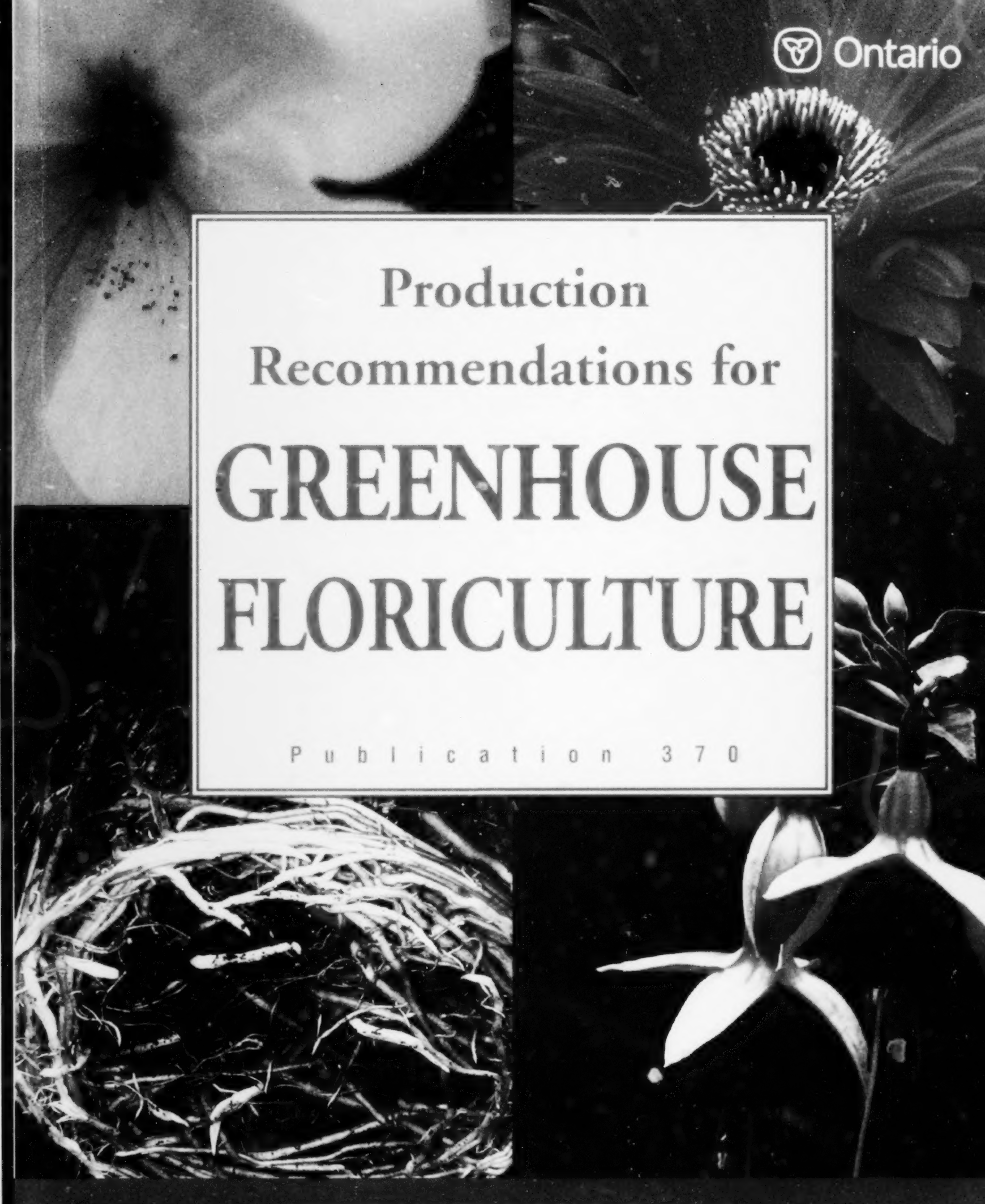


Ontario

Production Recommendations for GREENHOUSE FLORICULTURE

Publication 370

MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND FOOD

Recycle old editions of this publication. Each year the appropriate working group of the Ontario Pest Management Research and Services Committee reviews the pesticides listed in this publication. To the best knowledge of the committee, at the time of printing, all of these pesticides were:

- federally registered
- reviewed by the Ontario Pesticides Advisory Committee (OPAC)
- classified by the Ministry of the Environment as of August 2003.

The information in this publication is general information only. By printing this publication, the Ministry of Agriculture and Food does not offer any warranty or guarantee, nor does it assume any liability for any crop loss, animal loss, health, safety or environmental hazard caused by the use of a pesticide mentioned in this publication.

The pesticide product label is a legal document. It is against the law to use the product in any other way.
You must also use all pesticides in accordance with the *Pesticides Act* and Regulation 914, administered by the Ontario Ministry of the Environment.

In this publication, most recommendations list several pesticides that can be used for each pest discussed. In general the least hazardous materials and those pesticides that pesticide applicators have used satisfactorily for years are listed first. More toxic pesticides and/or newer ones with less practical grower experience follow.

This publication lists a number of brand names of pesticides. This is for your convenience only. It is neither an endorsement of the product nor a suggestion that similar products are ineffective.

Consult each product label for specific information such as compatibility with other materials and the effect of environmental conditions. Weather and other factors influence the effectiveness of pesticides and the likelihood of crop injury.

Health Canada has established maximum residue limits (MRLs) for pesticides. Processors or retailers may demand more restrictive limits. Growers should seek advice of their intended market as to which restrictions or limitations apply. Keep accurate and up-to-date records on pesticide use in each crop.

Federal Registration of Pesticide Products

The Pest Management Regulatory Agency (PMRA) of Health Canada grants registration following an evaluation of scientific data to ensure that the product has merit and value; and the human health and environmental risks associated with its proposed use are acceptable.

1. **Full Registration**
   Pesticide registrations are normally granted for a period of five years, subject to renewal.
2. **Temporary Registration**
   Temporary registration may be granted for a period not to exceed one year, where the registrant agrees to produce additional scientific or technical information, or the pesticide is used for emergency control of a serious pest outbreak.

Supplemental Labels

You MUST obtain a supplemental label and follow all the label directions when PMRA approves new uses for a registered pesticide that do not appear on the current label.

Examples of when you must use a supplemental label include:

- **Temporary Registrations for Emergency Use**
- **Minor Use Label Expansion** (new label statements for crops that do not already appear on that product label).

You can obtain a copy of a supplemental label from the pesticide manufacturer or pesticide vendor, the grower association that sponsored the emergency registration or minor use, from OMAF or PMRA's Pest Management Information Service.

For more information on the federal registration status check the PMRA Web site at *www.hc-sc.gc.ca/pmra-arla* or call **1-800-267-6315.**

Regulation of Pesticides in Ontario

Classification of Pesticides into "Schedules"

The Ministry of the Environment classifies all pesticide products into one of six schedules, based on the potential hazards that product may have for human health and the environment. For up-to-date information on the regulatory status of any pesticide check the Ontario Pesticides Advisory Committee Web site at *www.opac.gov.on.ca* or call (416) 314-9230/ fax (416) 314-9237.

Licensing and Certification Requirements for Pesticide Users

You must be a certified grower or licensed exterminator to buy and use Schedule 1, 2 and 5 pesticides.

Requirements for Growers and their Assistants

Growers must be certified through the **Grower Pesticide Safety Course** to buy and use Schedules 1, 2 or 5 pesticides on land they farm. There must be at least one certified grower for each farm operation.

All agricultural assistants must also receive formal pesticide safety training, recognized by the Ministry of the Environment, before they can use Schedule 2 or 5 pesticides under the supervision of a certified grower. This applies to all assistants — including family members, farm employees and seasonal workers.

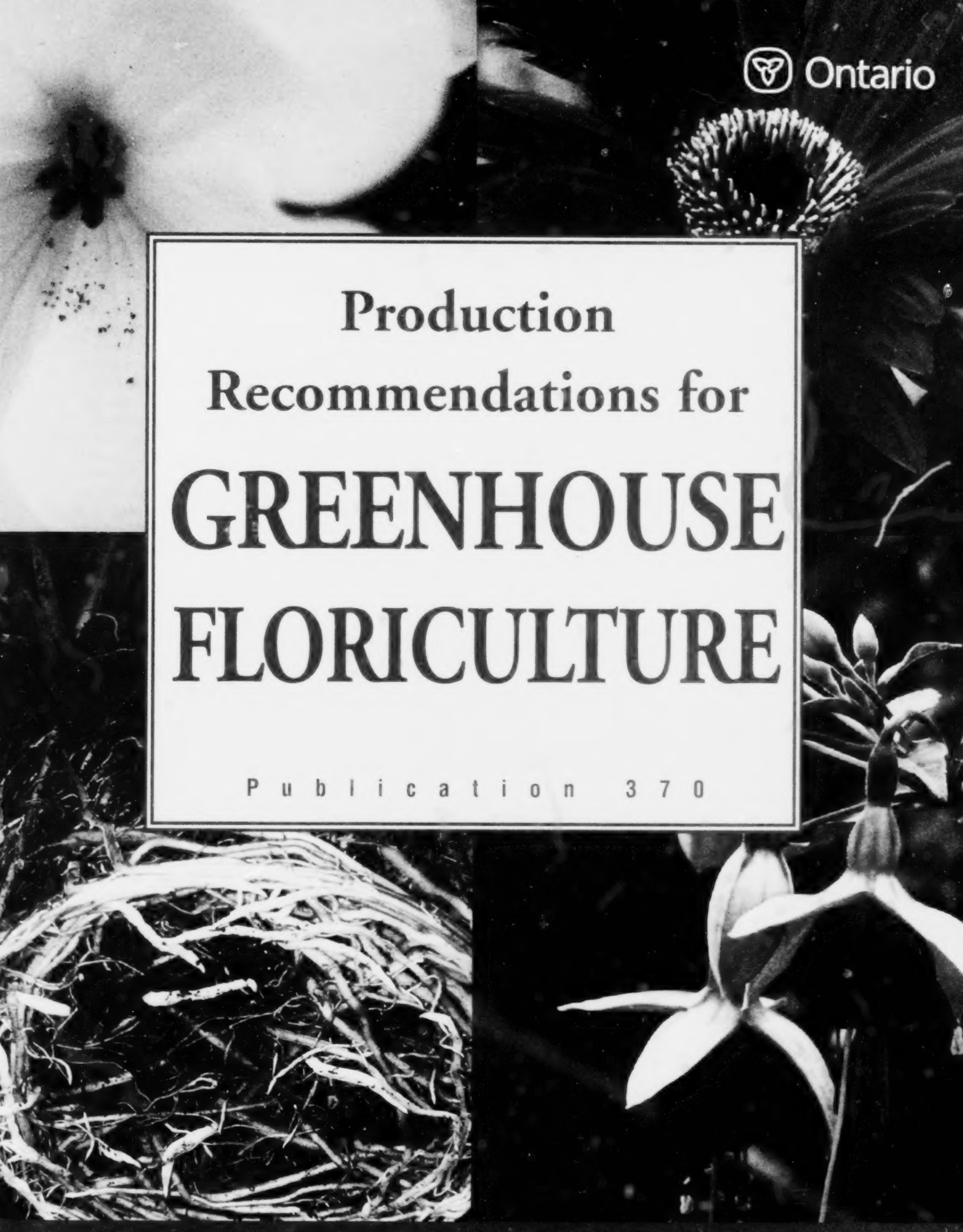
For more information about training for growers and agricultural assistants check the Ontario Pesticide Education Program Web site at *www.ridgetownc.uoguelph.ca/opep/* or call 1-800-652-8573.

Requirements for Commercial Applicators and their Assistants

If you plan to apply pesticides as a business, you must be a licensed exterminator. **This includes farmers who custom apply pesticides for other farmers and charge a fee for this service.** You must complete a home study course and certification exam, and send proof of certification to the Ministry of Environment to obtain your license.

Unlicensed assistants must be Technicians before they may handle Schedule 2 (with restrictions), 3, 4 and 6 products under indirect supervision of a licensed exterminator. Technicians may not handle Schedule 1 and 5 products. For more information about exterminators and technicians check the Ontario Pesticide Training and Certification Web site at *www.ridgetownc.uoguelph.ca/optc* or call 1-888-620-9999.

Cette publication est aussi disponible en français.



Ontario

Production Recommendations for GREENHOUSE FLORICULTURE

Publication 370

MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND FOOD

Need technical or business information?

Contact the Agricultural Information Contact Centre at

1-877-424-1300

or

ag.info@omaf.gov.on.ca

Looking for greenhouse production information on the Internet?

www.omaf.gov.on.ca

It's one-stop shopping regarding the production and maintenance of greenhouse crops.

Acknowledgements

The recommendations contained in this publication have been prepared in consultation with:

- Ontario Pest Management Research & Services Committee
- Ontario Horticulture Crops Soil Management Research and Services Committee
- Ontario Horticultural Crops Research & Services Committee

And personnel of:

- Crop Technology Branch, OMAF
- University of Guelph
- Plant Products Co. Ltd.

Table of Contents

1. Precautions with Pesticides

Pesticide Regulations 1
  Pesticide Schedules in Ontario 1
  Certification and Training Requirements 1
  Pesticide Certification for Ontario Farmers 1
  Training for Agricultural Assistants Using Schedule 2 or 5 Pesticides 1
  Certification and Licensing for Commercial Pesticide Exterminators 2
  Training for Technicians Working as Assistants to Licensed Exterminators 2
General Precautions 2
  Protection When Using Pesticides 2
Protect Other People, Livestock, Pets, Water and Sensitive Crops 3
Human Health 3
  Risks of Pesticide Use 3
  Cholinesterase Blood Tests 3
  First Aid 4
Read and Follow Pesticide Label Information 5
  Know the Hazard Symbols and Words 5
Re-Entry Periods 5
  Total Number of Applications 5
  Buffer Zones 5
Protective Clothing and Equipment 5
  Choose and Wear the Appropriate Protective Clothing and Equipment 5
When Working in Enclosed Areas 6
  Canister Gas Masks 6
  Self-Contained Breathing Apparatus 6
  Other Protective Clothing 7
  Working Conditions 7
  Safety Supply Companies 7
Care of Protective Clothing and Equipment 8
  Respirators 8
    Rubber, Vinyl, or Plastic Boots and Gloves 8
  How to Wash Clothes Used for Spraying 8
  Personal Hygiene 8
Protect the Environment 9
  Protect Water Sources 9
  Reduce and Manage Pesticide Spray Drift 9
  Prevent Bee Poisoning 9
Disposal of Pesticides and Empty Pesticide Containers 10
  Triple or Jet Rinse Empty Pesticide Containers 10
    To Triple Rinse 10
    Rinsing Devices 10
  How to Dispose of Empty, Triple-Rinsed Containers 10
    For Metal, Plastic or Glass Containers 10
    Recycling 10
    For Paper and Cardboard Containers 11
  Unwanted Pesticides 11
  Surplus Spray Mix 11
  Soluble Packaging Options 11
    Mixing Soluble Pouches 11
Storing Pesticides 12
Pesticide Spills 12
Types of Pesticide Application 12
  Spraying 12
  Fogs 13
  Granular Application 13
  Smokes 13
  Ultra-Low Volume 13
  Electro-Static Sprayers 13
Space Fumigants and Insecticide Smokes 13
  Fumigants 13
Wetting Agents 14
Water for Irrigation and Pesticide Application 14
  Irrigation 14
  Pesticide Spray-Tank Mixtures 14
  Agribrom 14
Wood Preservatives 15
Seed Treatments 15

2. Crop Nutrition

Introduction 16
Water 16
  Uptake 16
  Quantity 16
  Quality 16
EC 17
  Why Measure EC? 17
  How to Measure EC of the Growing Medium 18
  Interpretation of EC Data 18
pH and Its Role 19
  Alkalinity 19
  How to Measure pH 19
  Why Measure pH? 19
  Adjusting the pH 20
    Irrigation Water 20
    Media 20
Soilless Growing Media 21
  Why Use Soilless Mixes? 21
  Functions of a Good Growing Medium 21
  Common Ingredients 21
    Sphagnum peat moss 21
    Vermiculite 22
    Perlite 22
    Rockwool 22
    Polystyrene chips 22
    Turface® 23
    Haydite® 23
    Gro-Bark® 23
    Grow-Rich® 23
    Worm Castings 23
    Sand 23
  Physical Characteristics of a Soilless Mix 23
  Preparing a Soilless Mix 23

  - Chemical Characteristics of Mixes ... 24
  - Ready-Made Mixes ... 24
  - Composts ... 25
  - Common Problems with Soilless Mixes ... 25
- The Role of Nutrients in Plant Growth ... 25
- Uptake and Translocation of Nutrients ... 26
  - Macronutrients ... 26
  - Micronutrients ... 26
- Nutrient Analysis ... 27
  - Water ... 27
  - Soilless Media ... 28
  - Sampling the Growing Medium ... 28
  - Foliar ... 28
- Symptoms of Nutrient Deficiency ... 30
  - Nutritional Interactions ... 30
- Diagnosing Nutrient Disorders ... 31
  - Nitrogen ... 31
  - Phosphorus ... 31
  - Potassium ... 32
  - Magnesium ... 32
  - Sulphur ... 32
  - Calcium ... 32
  - Boron ... 32
  - Copper ... 32
  - Iron ... 33
  - Manganese ... 33
  - Molybdenum ... 33
  - Zinc ... 33

3. Integrated Pest Management

    - Resistance ... 35
    - Environmental Damage ... 35
    - Personal Health and Safety ... 35
- Monitoring ... 35
- Cultural Controls ... 35
  - Sanitation ... 35
  - Environmental Control ... 36
  - Resistant Cultivars ... 36
  - Soil Pasteurization Methods ... 37
    - Steam ... 37
    - Time-Temperature Relationships to Destroy Undesirable Organisms ... 37
    - Aerated Steam ... 37
    - Electric Soil Pasteurizers ... 38
    - Chemical Fumigants ... 38
    - Notes on Methyl Bromide ... 38
- Weed Control Methods ... 38
  - Steam ... 38
  - Soil Fumigation ... 38
  - Herbicides ... 39
- Physical Control ... 39
  - Screening ... 39
  - Other Physical Controls ... 40
- Biological Control ... 40
- Chemical Control ... 41
  - Resistance ... 41
  - Pesticide Application Effectiveness ... 42
  - Soil Drenches ... 43
  - Pesticide Compatibility ... 43

4. Major Insect and Mite Pests

- Thrips ... 44
  - Description and Life History ... 44
  - Damage ... 44
  - Control Strategies ... 44
    - Biological Control ... 44
    - Chemical Control ... 45
- Whiteflies ... 45
  - Description and Life History ... 45
  - Species of Whiteflies ... 46
  - Damage ... 46
  - Control Strategies ... 46
    - Biological Control ... 47
    - Physical Control ... 47
    - Chemical Control ... 48
- Two-Spotted Spider Mite ... 48
  - Description and Life History ... 48
  - Damage ... 48
  - Control Strategies ... 48
    - Biological Control ... 49
    - Cultural Control ... 49
    - Chemical Control ... 49
- Aphids ... 49
  - Description and Life History ... 49
  - Damage ... 49
  - Control Strategies ... 50
    - Biological Control ... 50
- Fungus Gnats ... 50
  - Description and Life History ... 50
  - Damage ... 51
  - Control Strategies ... 51
    - Biological Control ... 51
    - Chemical Control ... 52
- Leafminers ... 52
  - Description and Life History ... 52
  - Damage ... 53
  - Control Strategies ... 53
    - Biological Control ... 53
    - Chemical Control ... 53

5. Occasional Pests

- Ants ... 54
- Black Vine Weevil ... 54
- Caterpillars ... 54
- Grasshoppers ... 54
- Mealybugs ... 55
- Midges ... 55
- Mites ... 55
  - Cyclamen Mite/Broad Mite ... 55
  - Tomato Russet Mites ... 55
- Scale Insects ... 56
  - Ivy Scale and Greedy Scale ... 56
  - Fern Scale ... 56
  - Brown Soft Scale ... 56
  - Hemispherical Scale ... 56
- Slugs and Snails ... 56
- Sowbugs/Pillbugs ... 57
- Springtails ... 57
- Striped Cucumber Beetle ... 57
- Symphylans ... 57
- Tarnished Plant Bug ... 58
- Tomato Pinworm ... 58
- Vertebrate Pests ... 58
- Root Nematodes ... 59
  - Root-Lesion Nematode ... 59
  - Northern Root-Knot Nematode ... 59
  - Dagger Nematode ... 59
  - Pin Nematode ... 60

104-00398/

Southern Root-Knot Nematode ... 60
Foliar Nematodes ... 60
Strawberry Bud Nematode ... 60
Chrysanthemum Nematode ... 60

6. Integrated Disease Management

The Disease-Triangle Concept ... 61
Six Principles for Plant Disease Control ... 61
- Exclusion ... 61
- Avoidance ... 62
- Resistance ... 62
- Protection/Prevention ... 62
- Eradication ... 62
- Therapy ... 62

Basic Integrated Disease Control Strategies ... 62
- Environmental Manipulation ... 62
- Modification of Cultural Practices ... 62
- Sanitation and Roguing ... 63
- Disinfectants ... 64
- Pathogen-Free Plant Material ... 64
- Vector Control ... 64
- Host Plant Resistance ... 65
- Chemical Control ... 65
- Biological Control ... 65

Success Criteria ... 65

7. Major Greenhouse Diseases

Fungus Diseases ... 67
- Botrytis (Grey Mould) ... 67
- Fungal Leaf Spots, Flower Spots and Blights ... 68
- Powdery Mildews ... 68
- Downy Mildews ... 69
- Wilts ... 70
- Damping-off of Seedlings ... 71
- Crown and Root Rots ... 72
- Pythium ... 72
- Rhizoctonia ... 73
- Phytophthora ... 74
- Fusarium ... 74
- Thielaviopsis basicola ... 74
- Sclerotinia ... 74
- Rusts ... 75

Bacterial Diseases ... 76
- Erwinia carotovora ... 76
- Erwinia chrysanthemumi ... 76
- Ralstonia solanacearum ... 76
- Xanthomonas campestris ... 77

Viral Diseases ... 77
- Tomato Spotted Wilt Virus/Impatiens Necrotic Spot Virus ... 77

8. Pesticide Toxicity and Activity ... 79

Pesticide Injury to Flower Crops ... 82
- Pesticide Hazards ... 82

9. Using Plant Growth Regulators

Cultural ... 84
Chemical ... 84
Factors to Consider ... 84
- Plant Vigour ... 84
- Cultivar Response ... 84
- Environment ... 84
- Stage of Plant Growth ... 85
- Dosage and Coverage ... 85

Application Methods ... 85
- Drench ... 85
- Spray ... 86
- Number of Applications ... 86

Estimating Final Plant Height ... 86
Directions for Mixing Chemicals ... 87
Growth-Regulator Recommendations for Flower Crops ... 87

10. Pest and Disease Control ... 91

11. Pest Control Products for Outdoor Herbaceous Ornamentals

Integrated Pest Management (IPM) in Outdoor Ornamentals ... 119
Integrated Weed Management in Outdoor Flower Production ... 121

12. Appendices

A. Ontario Ministry of Agriculture and Food Floriculture Advisory Staff ... 125
B. Ontario Ministry of the Environment Pesticides Control Offices ... 125
C. Tissue Testing and Accredited Soil Testing Laboratories in Ontario ... 126
D. Other Contacts ... 126
E. Diagnostic Service ... 127
F. The Metric System ... 129

List of Figures and Tables

1. Precautions with Pesticides

TABLE 1–1. Safety Supply Companies in Ontario Providing Protective Clothing and Equipment 7
TABLE 1–2. Relative Toxicity of Insecticides to Honeybees 10
TABLE 1–3. Pesticides Act Storage Requirements 12

2. Crop Nutrition

TABLE 2–1. Classification of Water Quality Based on Electrical Conductivity (EC) and Certain Specifications 17
TABLE 2–2. Relative EC Requirements of Actively Growing Greenhouse Crops Using the SME and Pour-through Methods 19
TABLE 2–3. Optimal pH Range for Various Crops 20
TABLE 2–4. Volume of Acid Required to Neutralize 61 ppm HCO3- (1 mmol/L) per 100,000 L of Water 20
TABLE 2–5. Adjusting pH for Soilbeds 21
TABLE 2–6. Example of a Soilless Mix with Amendments 24
TABLE 2–7. Macro- and Micronutrients in Plants 25
TABLE 2–8. Maximum Desirable Concentrations of Specific Ions in Raw Water Used for Irrigation Purposes in a Greenhouse Using Soilless Substrates (Rockwool, Oasis, Peat or Coir) 27
TABLE 2–9. Tissue Analysis Guidelines 29
TABLE 2–10. Some Common Interactions between Nutrients 31
FIGURE 2–1. Key to Determining Nutrient Disorders in Greenhouse Crops 34

3. Integrated Pest Management

TABLE 3–1. Chemical Fumigants for Soil Treatments 38
TABLE 3–2. Biocontrol Agents for Principal Greenhouse Pests 41
TABLE 3–3. Reported Effects of Registered Fungicides on Biological Control Agents 42
TABLE 3–4. Reported Effects of Registered Insecticides/Miticides on Biological Control Agents 43

4. Major Insect and Mite Pests

FIGURE 4–1. Western Flower Thrips 44
FIGURE 4–2. Greenhouse Whitefly 46
FIGURE 4–3. Silverleaf Whitefly 46
FIGURE 4–4. Two-Spotted Spider Mite 48
FIGURE 4–5. Green Peach Aphid 50
FIGURE 4–6. Dark-Winged Fungus Gnats 51
FIGURE 4–7. Shoreflies 51
FIGURE 4–8. Leafminer 53

7.Major Greenhouse Diseases

FIGURE 7–1. Botrytis Life Cycle 67
FIGURE 7–2. Leaf Spot Disease Life Cycle 68
FIGURE 7–3. Powdery Mildew Life Cycle 69
FIGURE 7–4. Downy Mildew Life Cycle 70
FIGURE 7–5. Disease Cycle of Damping-off and Seed Decay 71
FIGURE 7–6. Pythium Root Rot Life Cycle 73
FIGURE 7–7. Rhizoctonia Life Cycle 73
FIGURE 7–8. Sclerotinia Life Cycle 75

8. Pesticide Toxicity and Activity

TABLE 8–1. Fungicidal Activity against Diseases of Flower Crops 79
TABLE 8–2. Insecticide and Miticide Toxicity and Classification 80
TABLE 8–3. Fungicide Toxicity and Classification 81
TABLE 8–4. Growth Regulator Toxicity and Classification 81

9. Using Plant Growth Regulators

TABLE 9–1. Dilution Guidelines for PGRs 85
TABLE 9–2. Recommended Application Volumes 86
TABLE 9–3. Summary of PGRs by Crop 87
TABLE 9–4. Plant Growth Regulators 88

10. Pest and Disease Control

TABLE 10–1. Pesticide Recommendations — By Pesticide 91
TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop 93

11. Pest Control Products for Outdoor Herbaceous Ornamentals

TABLE 11–1. Insecticides/Miticides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada 120
TABLE 11–2. Fungicides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada 120
TABLE 11–3. Other Pesticides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada 120
TABLE 11–4. Herbicides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada 123

1. Precautions with Pesticides

Pesticide Regulations

Report all major spills, fires or thefts involving pesticides to the Ontario Ministry of the Environment at 1-800-268-6060. (Regulation 914, s. 29)

Pesticide Schedules in Ontario

The Ontario Ministry of the Environment reviews each pesticide product offered for sale in Ontario and classifies it into one of six groupings called Schedules.

Sch.	Who Can Use It	Pesticide Characteristics*
1	• licensed applicator • certified grower • only with approved permit	• **very toxic** and/or • very persistent and/or • highly mobile
5	• licensed applicator • certified grower • assistant agriculturist under supervision	• **very toxic** and/or • very persistent and/or • highly mobile • less toxic or less persistent alternative not available
2	• licensed applicator • certified grower • trainee or technician under supervision (some restrictions apply) • assistant agriculturist under supervision	• **toxic** and/or • persistent and/or • moderately mobile
3	Any person	• **moderately toxic** and/or • moderately persistent and/or • slightly mobile
4	Any person	• **low toxicity** • non-persistent • non-mobile • containers <1 kg or <1 L
6	Any person	• **low toxicity** • non-persistent • non-mobile • containers >1 kg or >1 L

* Biological persistence and mobility in the environment, as expected under normal use conditions in Ontario.

Certification and Training Requirements

Only certified growers or licensed exterminators may buy and use Schedule 1, 2 or 5 pesticides. Assistants may also use Schedules 2 and 5 pesticides if they are trained and supervised as required.

Pesticide Certification for Ontario Farmers

Regulation 914 of the *Pesticides Act* requires that agriculturalists (growers) be certified to buy and use Schedules 1, 2 or 5 pesticides on land they farm. To become certified, agriculturalists must:

- attend the Grower Pesticide Safety Course (GPSC) and successfully complete the examination, and
- meet the definition of an "agriculturalist" as defined by Regulation 914 under the *Pesticides Act,* (i.e., use farm land for agricultural or forestry production, and that land falls within the farmlands property class under section 7 of the *Ontario Assessments Act*), and
- be at least 16 years of age.

Training for Agricultural Assistants Using Schedule 2 or 5 Pesticides

All assistants must have formal pesticide safety training, recognized by the Ministry of the Environment, before they can handle or use Schedule 2 or 5 pesticides under the supervision of a certified grower.

- This applies to all assistants, including family members, farm employees and seasonal workers.
- Trained assistants do not have to write an exam.
- Trained assistants must be at least 16 years of age.
- There are two training options for assistants. Assistants can:
  - attend a Grower Pesticide Safety Course and not write the certification examination (an examination is not required), or
  - attend an on-farm training session presented by a qualified trained assistant instructor.
- For more information and a listing of Grower Pesticide Safety Courses session dates and locations, check the

Ontario Pesticide Education Program Web site at www.ridgetownc.uoguelph.ca/opep.

- To register for a Grower Pesticide Safety Course anywhere in Ontario, or for information about trained assistants:
  - call: 1-800-652-8573
  - fax: 1-519-674-1589
  - e-mail: opep@ridgetownc.uoguelph.ca.

Certification and Licensing for Commercial Pesticide Exterminators

For updates to training requirements under Regulation 914 of the *Pesticides Act*, refer to the Ministry of the Environment Web site at www.ene.gov.on.ca or phone 1-888-565-4923.

Anyone applying pesticides as a business must be a licensed exterminator. This includes farmers who custom apply pesticides for other farmers and charge a fee for this service. Licensed exterminators who are self-employed must hold an operator licence as well as the appropriate exterminator licence. Exterminator licences are valid for five years.

Licensed exterminators must:

- successfully complete a home-study course and certification exam through Ridgetown College, University of Guelph, and
- apply to the Ministry of the Environment (MOE) to obtain an exterminator licence, providing proof of certification (letter of successful completion of the exam(s)) and a fee.

Training for Technicians Working as Assistants to Licensed Exterminators

Assistants to licensed exterminators must become technicians to mix, load or apply all Schedule 3, 4 and 6 pesticides and most Schedule 2 pesticides (some restrictions apply), under the indirect supervision of a licensed exterminator. Technicians cannot mix, load or apply Schedule 1 or 5 pesticides. Technician cards are valid for two years.

Technicians must:

- complete an MOE–approved academic course and exam, and
- complete practical training with a licensed exterminator.

For more information about certification and licensing requirements for licensed exterminators and training for technicians, contact Ontario Pesticide Training & Certification:

- call: 1-888-620-9999
- fax: 519-674-1585
- check the Web site at: www.ridgetownc.uoguelph.ca/optc.

General Precautions

Always read the label:

- Before you buy a pesticide!
- Before you begin to use a pesticide!
- Before you store a pesticide or dispose of it!

Learn about the health hazards and toxic properties of the pesticide you are using. Consult the product label, Material Safety Data Sheets (MSDS) or manufacturer for this information. Check the company Web sites for MSDS information.

Protection When Using Pesticides

- **Tell someone** where the work is taking place, what pesticides are being handled and how long the job is expected to take.
- **Post emergency numbers**, including the Poison Information Centre and Spills Action Centre near all telephones.
- **Keep a list of the names and the *Pest Control Products (PCP) Act* Registration Numbers of all the pesticides handled.** It's a good idea to keep a file of the pesticide label booklets for all the products used. Ensure that co-workers and family members know where this list or file is in case of an accident.
- **Have plenty of clean water, soap and paper towels—and an extra set of gloves and coveralls—nearby at all times** in case pesticide contaminates clothing or skin.
- **Wear the correct protective clothing and equipment,** and be sure that all items are clean and in good repair before putting them on.

- **Never smoke, chew tobacco, eat or drink when handling pesticides**. Never carry tobacco or food in clothes—and never leave tobacco, food or beverages in areas where handling or storing pesticides.

- **Change clothes and wash hands and face before eating, drinking or smoking.**

- **Wash hands before using the toilet, as well as after**. The skin in the groin area absorbs pesticides very easily.

Protect Other People, Livestock, Pets, Water and Sensitive Crops

- Buy and store only what is needed.

- Prevent drift.

- Keep pesticides out of water.

- Clean up spills quickly and safely.

- Dispose of containers and waste pesticide safely.

Human Health

Risks of Pesticide Use

Each time a person handles a pesticide, he is at some risk. The amount of risk depends on two things — the toxicity of that pesticide and the person's exposure to it.

Risk = Toxicity × Exposure

Toxicity is a measure of how harmful or poisonous the pesticide is. There are two types of toxicity:

- **Acute toxicity** — the toxic response that results from a *single exposure* to the pesticide. The symbols and words on the front panel of a pesticide label give information about the acute toxicity.

  Lethal dose 50% (LD_{50}) is a measure of acute toxicity. It is the dose (mg of product per kg of body weight) that will kill 50% of the test animals within a stated period of time (24 hours to 7 days). Those products with low LD50 ratings are highly toxic.

  Examples of products listed in this publication with a high acute toxicity include:

Common (active) name	Trade name
dichlorvos	DDVP
endosulfan	Endosulfan, Thiodan
nicotine	Nicotine Smoke Fumigator
pirimicarb	Pirliss

- **Chronic toxicity** — the toxic response that results from **repeated exposures** to small doses of a pesticide over a longer period of time. These toxic effects may not appear for months or years after exposure to the pesticide. The symbols on the label do **not give** information about the chronic toxicity of the product. Use protective clothing and equipment to help reduce exposure and the risk of chronic effects.

Cholinesterase Blood Tests

Organophosphorus and **carbamate** pesticides can affect people's nervous systems. These pesticides can change serum and red blood cell levels of an enzyme called acetyl cholinesterase. The body uses this enzyme to transmit messages through the nervous system. If cholinesterase levels fall, individuals experience such symptoms as trembling, twitching, blurred vision, and breathing and heart difficulties.

People who use any of the pesticides listed below on a routine basis should have regular cholinesterase blood tests. A family doctor can arrange these tests, and they are covered by OHIP. **Workers should have their first test *before* beginning to handle these pesticides** to show their baseline (normal) cholinesterase level. During the spray season, workers who spray organophosphorus or carbamate insecticides regularly for several weeks should have a cholinesterase blood test every **7 to 10 days**. If the worker's cholinesterase level drops to below one-half of his baseline level, he is showing signs of pesticide poisoning and **must remove himself from exposure** to these pesticides until his cholinesterase level returns to normal.

Common (active) name	Trade name
acephate	Orthene
bendiocarb	Trumpet
dichlorvos	DDVP
malathion	Malathion
naled	Dibrom
pirimicarb	Pirliss

Exposure is a measure of the contact with the pesticide. Workers can be exposed to the pesticide in three ways.

- **Dermal exposure** occurs through skin or eyes. The amount and rate of pesticide that may be absorbed depends on several things, including:
  - skin condition. If the skin is moist, or if the person exposed has a rash, broken skin or scratches, pesticide will be absorbed more easily.
  - the part of the body that is exposed. Eyes, genital area, scalp and ear canals absorb pesticides at a higher rate than hands or arms. Eyes absorb pesticides at a rate of 100%.
- **Respiratory exposure (inhalation)** occurs when small spray particles, dust, gases or vapours are inhaled.
- **Oral exposure** occurs when a pesticide enters the mouth or is swallowed.

First Aid

1. **Always protect yourself from injury first**. Don't become another victim. Always put on protective clothing and equipment before entering a contaminated area or handling a contaminated victim.

2. **Check to see if the victim is breathing**.

   If the victim is not breathing:
   - Straighten the victim's airway and check for breaths.
   - If the victim does not begin to breathe, administer artificial respiration until the victim begins to breathe on his own.
   - Do not contaminate yourself, especially if the victim has pesticide or vomit around the face or mouth. Use a faceshield airway with a one-way valve. Do not breathe the exhaled air from the victim.
   - Perform CPR if the victim's pulse disappears. You should perform CPR only if you are trained to do so.

   If the victim is breathing, but unconscious:
   - Place the victim in the recovery position (on the side with the head turned slightly to one side). If the victim vomits, try to keep the airway clear.

3. **Stop the exposure to the pesticide.** Move the victim away from the contaminated area. Remove all contaminated clothing. Use soap and water to wash any skin exposed to the pesticide.

4. **Check the Four Basic Facts**:
   - **Identify the pesticide**. Look for the label, container or leftover pesticide.
   - **Quantity** — How much product was the victim exposed to?
   - **Route of entry** — How did the pesticide enter the body? Did it enter through the mouth, skin/eyes or lungs?
   - **Time period** — How much time has passed since the victim was exposed to the pesticide, and how long was the exposure? Were the symptoms immediate or did the poisoning occur as a result of using the pesticide over a longer period of time?

***Don't waste time.* If you can't answer these questions quickly, be ready to tell emergency personnel whatever you can.**

5. **Call an ambulance or the Poison Information Centre**.

6. **Start the First Aid treatment appropriate for the route of entry**.

7. **Ensure the patient gets medical attention**. First aid is **not** a substitute for professional medical help.

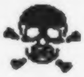
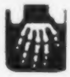
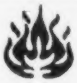
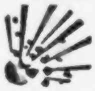
Emergency and First Aid Procedures for Pesticide Poisoning (See inside back cover)

If symptoms of illness occur during or shortly after handling a pesticide, go to a hospital. Take the pesticide label, MSDS sheet or pesticide container with you. Do not transport the container in the passenger compartment of the vehicle.

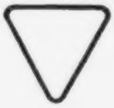
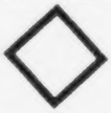
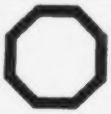
Read and Follow Pesticide Label Information

Know the Hazard Symbols and Words

Four important symbols and words show the potential hazards of pesticides.

Hazard Symbol	Signal Word
	Poison
	Corrosive
	Flammable
	Explosive

The hazard symbol always appears inside one of the shapes shown below. These shapes and their warning words tell you the degree of hazard of the pesticide. **The greater the number of sides to the shape, the more hazardous the product.**

	Warning Symbol	Signal Word
Triangular shape means low hazard (3 sides)		Caution
Diamond shape means moderate hazard (4 sides)		Warning
Octagonal shape means high hazard (8 sides)		Danger

Learn these symbols and words — they could save your life!

Check the label for special warnings about eye hazards and skin hazards. The front panel of the pesticide label may also contain warnings that caution that the product is corrosive to eyes, or is a skin or eye irritant.

Re-Entry Periods

Re-entry period is the minimum amount of time that must pass between the time pesticide was applied and the time that workers can go into the crop without wearing personal protective equipment. If workers enter treated areas without wearing protective equipment too soon after pesticides have been applied, they may experience poisoning. Such poisoning can result from handling treated plants or from inhaling pesticide vapours.

The list below shows a specific minimum interval between applying the pesticide and working in the treated crop without protective equipment.

- Some pesticides, like parathion, have labels that carry a warning about working in treated crops. Follow the label recommendations.
- Otherwise, keep to the following minimum intervals:

12 Hours	24 Hours
pyridaben (Dyno-Mite)	bendiocarb (Trumpet)
deltamethrin (Decis)	

Total Number of Applications

Some product labels state the total number of applications of that pesticide that can be made during a growing season. These limits prevent food residues, crop damage, soil residues or pest resistance.

Buffer Zones

Buffer zones are areas left untreated to protect an adjacent area, e.g., a pond, stream, sensitive crop, non-target crop, wetland or woodland etc. This may have implications for growers of outdoor flower crops.

Protective Clothing and Equipment

Choose and Wear the Appropriate Protective Clothing and Equipment

Make sure protective clothing and equipment:

- is what is needed for the job
- fits properly, and
- is clean and in good repair and working condition.

The protective clothing and equipment workers need to wear depends on:

- **the pesticide being used** — read the precautions section of the label to know what to wear.
- **the job being done** — e.g., use more protection when handling concentrated pesticide or when mixing and loading a sprayer.
- **the type of application** — enclosed space or air-blast sprayer applications made with open tractors require more equipment.

All persons working with pesticides need **their own** set of protective clothing and equipment. Consult the technical expert at the safety supply company to ensure that the appropriate equipment is purchased and that it fits the user.

For ALL pesticides, always wear:

- Water-repellent hat, such as a hard hat or waterproof rain hat
  - Sometimes the entire head and neck must be protected, for example, if applying pesticides in a greenhouse, applying dusty formulations or using an air-blast sprayer. In these situations, wear a hood or hat that protects ear canals. Do not wear baseball-style or other cloth hats, which absorb pesticides and are not safe.

- Long pants and a shirt with long sleeves, or a coverall
  - Coveralls can be reusable or disposable. Reusable coveralls are normally cotton or polyester and should be tightly woven. Disposable coveralls should be designated for pesticide use.
  - Water-resistant coveralls are preferred because cotton, denim and cotton/polyester pants cling to the skin if they get wet, increasing the risk of dermal exposure.

- Chemical-resistant gloves (unlined)
  - Use neoprene or nitrile gloves (PVC), unless the label states otherwise. **Do not** wear rubber gloves as many pesticides can break down the rubber material. Wear gloves under sleeves with the top cuffed.

- Chemical-resistant boots (unlined)
  - Wear pant legs over boots to prevent pesticide from running down inside the boots.

Read the label. It will describe what extra protective clothing and equipment to wear. For some pesticides workers may also need to wear:

- Goggles
  - Use safety goggles with indirect vents so that splashes do not enter the eye. Regular eye glasses don't provide complete protection. Never wear contact lenses when handling pesticides.

- Face shield

- Chemical-resistant apron

- Respirator
  - A respirator is a unit that covers the mouth and nose to prevent spray droplets, small particles and vapours from entering the lungs. **A dust mask is not a substitute for a pesticide respirator**. When buying a respirator or replacement cartridges, use cartridges and pre-filters that protect against organic vapours. For more information about respirators, refer to the *Grower Pesticide Safety Course* manual, Ridgetown College, University of Guelph.

When Working in Enclosed Areas

Canister Gas Masks

- Canister gas masks are effective for protection against certain harmful gases, vapours and particulate matter.

- They are generally suitable for ventilated areas not subject to rapid change, but should never be used in confined spaces where oxygen deficiency and high gas concentrations may occur.

Self-Contained Breatning Apparatus

- Air-purifying devices do not work in confined spaces where gas concentrations are unusually high. The lack of oxygen can prove fatal. Under these conditions, use an air supply provided by a self-contained breathing apparatus (e.g., Scott Air Pack).

- Substances that produce hydrogen cyanide, methyl bromide, chloropicrin or phosphine can produce high gas concentrations and oxygen deficiency as can smoke generators, foggers using highly toxic pesticides and some volatile sprays.

Other Protective Clothing

- Wear other protective clothing in keeping with requirements listed on the pesticide label.

Working Conditions

- Use canister gas masks when the surrounding air contains low concentrations of toxic gases, vapours or particulate matter derived from soil-drench, granular, dust or foliar spray applications. Pesticides applied in this manner usually have moderate to low toxicity.
- Use a self-contained breathing apparatus (e.g., Scott Air Pack) when applying highly toxic pesticides. These can produce high concentrations of toxic gases, vapours or particulate matter, and a lack of oxygen, especially in an enclosed space (e.g., when fumigating grain).

- Contact a safety supply company for recommendations.

Safety Supply Companies

Consult a safety supply company for help in selecting protective clothing and equipment (see Table 1–1, *Safety Supply Companies in Ontario Providing Protective Clothing and Equipment*).

TABLE 1–1. Safety Supply Companies in Ontario Providing Protective Clothing and Equipment

3-M Canada Inc.	Occupational Health and Environmental Safety, Box 5757 London, ON N6A 4T1	tel: (519) 452-6165 toll-free: 1-800-364-3577 fax: (519) 452-4660
Acklands Grainger	90 West Beaver Creek Rd. Richmond Hill, ON L4B 1E7	tel: (905) 731-5516 toll-free: 1-800-668-8989 fax: (905) 731-2798
Aearo Canada	7115 Tomken Rd. Mississauga, ON L5S 1X7	tel: (905) 795-0700 toll-free: 1-800-387-4304 fax: (905) 564-5250
Dutch Industries "Protect-Air Cab Filter"	Huron Tractor, Box 1300 Exeter, ON N0M 1S3	tel: (519) 235-1115 fax: (519) 255-1939
HAMISCO	3392 Wonderland Rd. London, ON N6L 1A8	tel: (519) 652-9800 toll-free: 1-800-668-9800 fax:(519) 652-9661
Kappler Canada	Box 1687 20 Ryan Place Brantford, ON N3T 5V7	tel: (519) 752-4369 toll-free: 1-800-387-9326 fax: (519)752-2161
Levitt-Safety (Eastern) Limited	2872 Bristol Circle Oakville, ON L6H 5T5	tel: (905) 829-3299 toll-free: 1-800-668-6153 fax: (905) 829-2919
Mitt & Robe Co.	751 Norfolk St. N. Simcoe, ON N3Y 3R6	tel: (519) 428-4050 toll-free: 1-877-893-6565 fax: (519) 428-5142
MSA Canada Inc.	148 Norfinch Dr. North York, ON M3N 1X8	tel: (416) 667-9400 toll-free: 1-800-267-0672 fax: (416) 663-5908
Plant Products Co. Ltd.	314 Orenda Road Brampton, ON L6T 1G1	tel: (905) 793-7000 toll-free: 1-800-387-2449 fax: (905) 793-9632
Safety Express	4060B Sladeview Cres., Unit 2 Mississauga, ON L5L 5Y5	tel: (905) 608-0111 toll-free: 1-800-465-3898 fax: (905) 608-0091
The St. George Company (Suppliers of Kasco Helmets)	P.O. Box 430 20 Consolidated Drive Paris, ON N3L 3T5	tel: (519) 442-2046 toll-free: 1-800-461-4299 fax: (519) 442-7191

Care of Protective Clothing and Equipment

After completing the spray operation, clean all protective clothing and equipment.

Never let children, pets or livestock come in contact with contaminated clothing or equipment. Also ensure that they cannot come into contact with the puddles of water that result when cleaning equipment.

Wash gloves with soap and water and then leave them on to remove other protective clothing and equipment.

Always remove protective clothing and equipment outdoors. If a granular pesticide was used, shake the clothing outdoors in a safe place, emptying pockets and cuffs.

Clothing that has been contaminated by spills of highly toxic or concentrated pesticide should be thrown out. Place clothing in a plastic bag and take it to a landfill site.

Coveralls and other spray clothing must be washed separately from other clothes. They should be washed after each use. After laundering, place them in a plastic bag and keep them separate.

With hands still protected by gloves, wash protective equipment. It is best to wash equipment outdoors. If the work area does not have an outside cleanup area, keep certain buckets just for equipment cleanup. Mark them and keep them in a special place. Wash the inside and outside of goggles, hat, boots and any water-repellent clothing in warm soapy water, rinse well and let air-dry.

Respirators

Remove the cartridges and pre-filters from the respirator.

Discard cartridges, canisters and filter pads when breathing becomes difficult, when a pesticide taste or odour is noticed or at the interval set by the manufacturer.

- Note the date the cartridge is first used.
- Remove cartridges and filter pads from the face piece and store in clean, sealed plastic bags.
- Wash the face piece in warm soapy water, rinse thoroughly and dry in a well-ventilated area. Air-drying prevents damage to the inlet and outlet valves.
- Never use alcohol or other solvents for cleaning, as they will damage the rubber and plastic.

Rubber, Vinyl, or Plastic Boots and Gloves

- To avoid getting pesticide on hands, wash the outside of boots and gloves with detergent and water before taking them off.

After removing boots and gloves, wash them inside and out with detergent and water, rinse them thoroughly and dry them in a well-ventilated area.

How to Wash Clothes Used for Spraying

Never mix spray clothing with household laundry. All clothing used for spraying must be stored and washed separately from other clothing. Wash spray clothing after each use. **Remember to use chemical-resistant gloves to handle pesticide-contaminated clothing.**

- Presoak clothing before washing. Use one of three methods:
  - hose off garments outdoors
  - soak in separate tub or pail
  - use the prewash cycle in an automatic washer.
- Place clothing directly into the washing machine. Wash only a few garments at a time. Do not wash with other family clothes.
- Use hot water, the highest water level, and the longest cycle, with heavy duty detergent. Wash as for heavily soiled clothing.
- Wash clothing again.
- After washing, hang outside (preferably in bright sunlight) until completely dry. Do not use a clothes dryer.
- Clean the washing machine. Run the washing machine through one complete cycle using only detergent and hot water (no clothing).

Personal Hygiene

Always wash your hands before eating, drinking or smoking.

When finished for the day, take a bath or shower as soon as possible. The longer a pesticide remains on the skin, the greater the risk that it will be absorbed into the body.

Wash hair and under fingernails. Shower with lots of soap and water.

Always change into clean clothes.

Wear clean work clothes every day. A small spill on the previous day's clothes may seem unimportant, but wearing the same clothing again without washing it prolongs exposure and increases risk.

Protect the Environment

Protect Water Sources

- Use an anti-backflow device to prevent back-siphoning when drawing water from wells, ponds, streams or other sources.
- Mix pesticide and load the sprayer *away* from any water supply, including wells, ponds or streams.
- Use buffer zones (untreated areas) when applying pesticides to avoid contaminating surface water, wells, ponds and/or streams. Check the product label for specific buffer-zone distances.

Reduce and Manage Pesticide Spray Drift

Spray only when winds are light to moderate (less than 11 km/h). If drift is occurring because of the wind, **stop spraying** until the wind subsides. Do not apply pesticides if the wind is blowing towards susceptible crops or environmentally sensitive areas such as watercourses.

- Read the product label for information regarding buffer zones, water volumes and recommended nozzles.
- Use buffer zones around all watercourses and wells and neighbouring fields that contain sensitive crops. If the label does not state a specific buffer-zone distance, leave an untreated area of natural vegetation.
- Select the recommended sprayer application rate (L/ha).
- Select the correct nozzle. Where practical, use air induction/venturi nozzles. These nozzles significantly reduce drift when compared to conventional nozzles.
- Select the correct nozzle-to-target distance.
- Use spray plume protection (hoods, shrouds, screens and air curtains) where practical or available.
- Use drift-reducing adjuvants in the spray tank as directed by the label.
- Utilize wick weeders, instead of spraying, when possible.

For more information about spray drift consult the OMAF/Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada booklet *Best Management Practices—Pesticide Storage, Handling and Application* and the Ontario Pesticide Education Program (Ridgetown College) videos *How to Manage Spray Drift* and *Spray Drift Reduction through Air Induction*.

Prevent Bee Poisoning

While protection of bees is not relevant to most greenhouse growers, it is an important consideration for growers of outdoor flowers. Honeybees, as well as other bees and insects, are important pollinators of crops. Many crops also offer bees important sources of nectar for honey production.

If choosing to use insecticides for insect control, take these steps to prevent harming bees:

- Before applying a pesticide, advise local beekeepers so that they can move colonies out of the danger area. Contact the Provincial Apiarist at 1-888-466-2372 for a list of the beekeepers in the area.
- Do not spray any flowering crop on which bees are foraging. If you must apply insecticides, spray after 7 p.m. when the bees are not foraging. If this is not possible, spray before 7 a.m. Bees usually do not forage at temperatures below 13°C.
- Do not apply insecticide on windy days so as to prevent drift towards any nearby hives.
- When there is a choice, choose the product formulation that is less hazardous to bees. Dusts are more toxic than sprays. EC formulations are less toxic than WP formulations.
- Under the *Bees Act* it is an offence to spray in orchards while there is bloom on the trees.

Most organophosphate and carbamate insecticides are highly toxic to bees. Examples of insecticides used in crop production that are toxic to bees are listed in Table 1–2, *Relative Toxicity of Insecticides to Honeybees*.

TABLE 1–2. Relative Toxicity of Insecticides to Honeybees

Group 1 – Very toxic. Do not apply to flowering crops or weeds	
Pounce	permethrin
Diazinon	diazinon
Cygon, Lagon	dimethoate
Imidan	phosmet
Malathion	malathion
Sevin	carbaryl
Group 2 – Apply only during late evenings or early morning*	
Decis	deltamethrin
Endosulfan, Thiodan	endosulfan

* Unusually low temperatures at time of application may cause insecticides to remain toxic up to 20 times longer than during warm weather. High temperatures in the early morning or late evening may extend active foraging by bees.

Read each pesticide label for specific precautions regarding bees.

Disposal of Pesticides and Empty Pesticide Containers

Triple or Jet Rinse Empty Pesticide Containers

Unrinsed pesticide containers are not really empty; they may still hold about 1% of the original amount of pesticide. Although this figure sounds low, it is still a hazard to humans, animals and the environment. To reduce the hazard, rinse each container three times as the spray tank is filling and add rinsate to the tank. Use either the manual triple-rinse technique, or a specially designed device for rinsing containers. Paper or cardboard containers are often strong enough to be rinsed. If possible, rinse these containers as well as plastic ones.

To Triple Rinse

1. Fill the empty container at least 10% full of the diluting material (usually water).
2. Cap, then shake or roll the container so the inside surfaces of the container are well rinsed.
3. Pour rinsings into the spray tank.
4. Repeat steps 1–3 twice more.

Remember to check the container after rinsing. Ensure that no pesticide has been left behind as a cake or paste on the bottom of the container.

Rinsing Devices

Rinsing devices use pressurized water to clean out the container. They are just as effective as triple rinsing but take less time. Follow the manufacturer's instructions.

How to Dispose of Empty, Triple-Rinsed Containers

Never re-use empty pesticide containers. They may be handy, but there is still some risk even if the containers are triple rinsed. Never give empty, rinsed containers to anyone, especially children. Dispose of them promptly.

Regulation 914 (section 27) of the *Pesticides Act* regulates how pesticide containers are to be disposed of in Ontario.

For Metal, Plastic or Glass Containers

Dispose of empty metal, plastic or glass containers that have held a Schedule 1, 2, 3*, 5 or 6* (*non-domestic) pesticide:

- triple rinse or jet rinse using clean water, or another appropriate solvent **and either**
  - take them for recycling to a Pesticide Container Depot **or**
  - take them to a licensed waste disposal site.

Once containers are properly rinsed, puncture them so they cannot be used again and to ensure the rinse water is out of the container.

It is often more convenient to store empty, rinsed containers until there are enough to make a trip to the recycling Pesticide Container Depot or the waste disposal site. If you store containers, make sure they have been rinsed and punctured to prevent re-use and store them in a dry, safe place, such as the pesticide storage area, until you can dispose of them properly.

Recycling

The Ontario Pesticide Container Recycling Program is available to growers and commercial applicators. Through this program, **clean, triple-rinsed, plastic/metal pesticide containers** (up to 23 L for plastic and 20 L for metal) can be returned to Pesticide Container Depots located throughout the province. To locate the closest Pesticide Container Recycling Depot, call the Ontario Pesticide Education Program at 1-800-652-8573.

For Paper and Cardboard Containers

A paper or cardboard container that has been used to hold a Schedule 1, 2, 3*, 5 or 6* (*non-domestic) pesticide must be disposed of by:

- triple rinsing or jet rinsing (if possible) using clean water **and either:**
  - burning, (if allowed by municipal bylaws) in circumstances that persons and animals are kept out of any smoke produced and any smoke is directed away from buildings, highways, roads or outdoor areas frequented by the public, **or**
  - taking it to a licensed waste disposal site.

Paper or cardboard containers are often rigid enough to withstand rinsing. If possible, triple rinse these containers while filling the tank. Then burn the containers in an isolated area of the farmland.

Be very careful around the smoke. It may contain toxic fumes from the burning pesticide. Be certain that there is no chance that a person or animal may breathe this smoke. Ensure that the smoke does not drift towards buildings, roads or any public outdoor areas.

Pesticide containers can also be taken to a local waste disposal site in the same way as metal, plastic or glass containers. If immediate disposal is impossible, keep containers in a secure place such as the pesticide storage area.

Unwanted Pesticides

For excess pesticides, dispose of them safely.

- Contact the supplier. It is sometimes possible to return unused pesticide if it is still in its original container.

- If the product cannot be used as shown on the label, the Ministry of the Environment requires that excess pesticide be disposed of by licensed waste haulers to a licensed waste disposal site. Look in the Yellow Pages of the telephone directory under "Liquid Waste Removal."

- Watch the local paper for "Municipal Waste Collection Days" or contact the municipality. If the municipality has no waste collection days, encourage it to sponsor such an event. On these days, turn over surplus pesticide concentrates (maximum 25 L) for disposal.

Surplus Spray Mix

The best way to dispose of any excess spray mix is to find other fields that require an application of this pesticide. Before spraying, check the label to make sure the pesticide is registered for use on that crop.

If it is impossible to find another field to spray, dilute the remaining spray mix by adding 10 parts of water for each 1 part of spray mix. This diluted solution can be safely applied to the treated area as long as you do not exceed the pesticide rate recommended on the label. Be sure to check the label for any restrictions about crop rotation, days to harvest, or surplus spray mix disposal.

NEVER re-spray the treated field with undiluted spray mix. Spraying an area twice will double the recommended pesticide rate. This may cause illegal pesticide residues in the harvested crop or harmful residues in the soil that can cause crop damage.

Soluble Packaging Options

Choose soluble packages that dissolve in the spray tank to reduce container disposal. Water-soluble packaging is used for dry flowable and wettable powder formulations of pesticides and is available under names such as Clean Pak, Solupak and Toss-N-Go. In most cases, the water-soluble packaging material is PVA (poly vinyl alcohol). This material dissolves completely when added to the water in the sprayer tank according to instructions.

Read all labels and instructions carefully. For more details contact the pesticide vendor.

Keep soluble pouches dry until adding them to the spray tank:

- Do not handle pouches with wet hands or wet gloves.

- Do not remove pouches from the outer package until ready to add them.

- Always reseal the outer package to protect the remaining pouches from moisture.

Mixing Soluble Pouches

- Consult product labels for specific mixing instructions for each product.

- Fill the spray tank one-quarter full of water and have the agitator running. Then add the water-soluble pouches to the tank.

- Most pouches dissolve completely within 5 minutes, depending on the water temperature and the degree of agitation.

- As the tank continues to fill, add any other compatible pesticides.

Do not add:

- a pesticide that is incompatible with the PVA packaging material. The PVA material is not soluble with summer-type oils (e.g., Superior Oil).
- any material containing boron (e.g., Solubor), chelated micronutrients or water-soluble fertilizers. This combination is likely to cause a sticky, insoluble substance in the tank. If applying boron, chelated micronutrients or water-soluble fertilizers, completely empty and rinse the spray tank before using any product packaged in PVA.

Storing Pesticides

Ontario's *Pesticides Act* and its Regulation 914 give storage requirements for storage facilities (see Table 1–3, *Pesticides Act Storage Requirements).* The storage requirements depend on which Schedules of pesticides are stored.

See also OMAF Factsheet, *Pesticide Handling Facilities*, Order No. 94-037.

Pesticide Spills

Protect yourself before beginning to clean up any spill. Clean up spills immediately.

In the case of minor spills:

- For liquids, cover the spill with a thick layer of absorbent material such as kitty litter, vermiculite or dry soil. Sweep or shovel the material into a waste drum.

- For powders and granulars, sweep or shovel the material into a waste drum.

In the case of a major spill:

- Remove any people or animals from the spill area.

- Stop the spill from spreading.

- Do not let the pesticide enter any watercourse.

TABLE 1–3. *Pesticides Act* Storage Requirements

	Schedule 3, 4 & 6	Schedule 2	Schedule 1 & 5
No contact with food or drink	◆	◆	◆
Not impair health/safety	◆	◆	◆
Clean and orderly manner	◆	◆	◆
Warning signs posted on storage buildings	◆	◆	◆
Warning signs posted on unattended vehicles	◆	◆	◆
Emergency telephone numbers posted	◆	◆	◆
Ventilated to outside		◆	◆
Limited access (locked)		◆	◆
No floor drain		◆	◆
Safety equipment available		◆	◆
Area used exclusively for pesticides			◆

If a pesticide spill causes, or is likely to cause, an adverse effect, you must notify the Ministry of Environment, Spills Action Centre at 1-800-268-6060 (24 hours a day, 7 days a week) and the municipality.

For information on preventing spills see OMAF Factsheet, *Ways to Avoid Pesticide Spills*, Order No. 96-025. (See the inside front cover of this publication for information on how to obtain factsheets.)

Types of Pesticide Application

Spraying

- Spraying is one of the most widely used and effective methods of applying pesticides.

- Clean and pressure-maintain nozzles to achieve a fine spray that will result in uniform coverage when the mixture is applied up to the point of runoff.

- Complete coverage is the objective; spray both the lower and upper leaf surfaces thoroughly.

Fogs

- Fogs are produced by several kinds of machines.
- These machines all use heat from different sources to vaporize the pesticide.
- Fogging can be a very efficient method of pesticide application provided the operator follows the basic instructions.

Granular Application

- Several types of applicators are available for applying granular pesticides.
- Be sure the applicator does not grind or fracture the granules.

Smokes

- Smokes are a very simple but effective means of pesticide application.
- There is no equipment involved; containers are simply placed on the path and lit.
- Do not use smokes in very old, loose greenhouses or during high winds.

Ultra-Low Volume

- There are several types of ultra-low volume (U.L.V.) applicators available.
- They atomize the pesticide solution into an extremely small particle size (7–20 microns).
- They distribute pesticide through the greenhouse by a forced-air fan system.

Electro-Static Sprayers

- Electro-static sprayers (E.S.S.) add an electrical charge to the fine spray particles.
- This enhances plant coverage by the pesticide and reduces drift.

Space Fumigants and Insecticide Smokes

- Learn about the health hazards and toxic properties of the pesticide being used. Consult the product label, Material Safety Data Sheets (MSDS) or manufacturer for this information.
- When using fumigants or insecticide smoke generators, wear protective clothing to prevent skin and inhalation exposure. During and after treatment, lock the building and post warning signs.
- Follow instructions on the product label regarding aeration of treated buildings, warehouses, grain storage bins or other areas before letting anyone enter.

Fumigants

- Always consult the product label.
- Agriculturalists using methyl bromide plus chloropicrin or aluminum phosphide to fumigate greenhouses, vaults, warehouses and grain storages must obtain a permit issued under Ontario's *Pesticides Act.*
- To apply for a permit, contact the local Pesticides Officer with the Ontario Ministry of the Environment.
- Remove livestock and poultry that are in the same building.
- As a safety precaution, have someone else who is wearing personal protective equipment help with the fumigation.
- When handling methyl bromide, do not wear gloves because these will trap gas next to the skin. Wear a full-face respirator with organic vapour canister or positive-pressure breathing apparatus.
- When handling aluminum phosphide, use cotton gloves and wear a full-face mask respirator with an acid-gas canister.
- For more information, obtain *Methyl Bromide Structure Fumigation Procedures* and *Aluminum Phosphide Structure Fumigation Procedures* from the Ontario Ministry of the Environment.

Wetting Agents

In the following discussion, the term "wetting agent" includes spreaders, stickers and surfactants, although these terms have slightly different technical meanings.

- Water will not always spread evenly over a surface. Its hydrophilic nature creates a high surface tension so that, when placed on a leaf (hydrophobic) surface, it forms large droplets that easily roll (with the pesticides) off the leaf and onto the ground.

- Reducing the water's surface tension by adding a wetting agent allows the water to make better contact with the leaves. Consequently, the pesticides spread more evenly over the leaf surface.

- Most pesticides are formulated with a wetting agent in them. However, in some cases (due to air or water temperature, water hardness, type of leaf surface, stage of plant growth and/or the type of formulation), the amount may not be adequate. Consult the label for specific recommendations.

- A simple method of determining if the amount of wetting agent present is sufficient is to spray about 3 m of bed area. Examine both the upper and lower surfaces of leaves at different growth stages for evidence of uniform wetting.

- If wetting is not uniform, add 125 mL of spreader per 1000 L of spray. Spray another 3 m of the bed and re-examine. Continue until wetting is satisfactory.

- Wetting agents help the spray solution to wet powdery mildew mycelium, improving control. However, an excessive amount of wetting agent can cause plant damage, excessive foaming (which will cause pumping problems) or runoff (resulting in poor control).

Water for Irrigation and Pesticide Application

It is very important to neutralize alkaline water when using the water for irrigation and pesticide spray-tank mixtures.

Irrigation

- For crop irrigation, water should have a pH in the 6.0 range (acidic) in order to improve nutrient uptake. Many water sources in Ontario have a high pH (alkaline), which must be lowered.

- By testing the water, determine both the quantity and type of acid to add to achieve the desired pH level. Consult a Greenhouse Crop Advisor and see Chapter 2, *Crop Nutrition*, page 16.

Pesticide Spray-Tank Mixtures

- Because many pesticides breakdown in alkaline water, try to use pesticides diluted with alkaline water immediately.

- However, spraying immediately is not always possible. Note that any delay in applying spray mixtures will result in pesticide loss due to decomposition and, possibly, a corresponding decrease in control. To avoid this, neutralize alkaline water before adding any pesticides. Dissolve ammonium dihydrogen phosphate at the rate of 50 g/100 L water first, then add pesticides.

- The rate of decomposition depends on the pesticide, the concentration of pesticide in the tank (dilution factor) and the temperature of the water.

- The phosphate is not always necessary, but this practice provides insurance against pesticide loss. Phosphate costs substantially less than pesticides, and the added phosphate will be available as a foliar nutrient.

- Water-soluble fertilizers are used occasionally with pesticides as a tank mixture. In this case, it is important to choose acidic fertilizers (which make the addition of ammonium dihydrogen phosphate unnecessary). Do not use alkaline fertilizers for this purpose; the amount of phosphate recommended above will be insufficient to neutralize the water, and pesticide decomposition may increase.

Agribrom

- Agribrom is registered for use as a water treatment to control algae.

- To be effective, it must be constantly present in the irrigation water at a low level.

- If irrigation water is being recirculated, and Agribrom is added every time the water is reused, monitor chloride levels and suspend use if chloride levels are high.

- Treating reservoir water may also elevate chloride levels, so it is advisable to inject Agribrom just as the water is applied to the crop.

- Follow label directions carefully.

Wood Preservatives

- Wolmanized® lumber is safe for greenhouse use.

- Copper napthanate has caused some crop injury to poinsettia.

- Other wood preservatives should not be used. Check with a Greenhouse Crop Advisor.

Seed Treatments

- Seed dressings or treatments are poisonous to people and livestock.

- Do not inhale the fumes or dust when treating or handling treated seed.

- Wear neoprene or nitrile gloves.

- Wash all residue of these chemicals from skin after finishing the treatment. Chemically treated seed is poisonous.

Never feed surplus seed to livestock. Destroy all the bags that have held treated seed as recommended in *Disposal of Pesticides and Empty Pesticide Containers*, page 10.

2. Crop Nutrition

Introduction

Living plants consist of water (≈90%), organic matter (4%–10%) and minerals (15%). The organic matter is produced by photosynthesis in the green leaves, while water and minerals are generally taken up by the roots and transported within the plant through specialized tissue (the veins of the plant) called the xylem. Most water taken up (≈90%) is lost through the leaves and into the air in a process called transpiration, while smaller amounts (≈1%) are used for photosynthesis or as plant constituent (≈9%). Carbohydrates (sugars and starches) are produced by photosynthesis and distributed within the plant by tissue called the phloem, generally in a downward direction.

Water

Water is one of the most important compounds for growing a crop, yet it is often the most neglected. Water serves as a medium in which chemical processes, such as ion uptake and photosynthesis, take place and acts as a coolant through transpiration for both the crop and its environment. Both quantity and quality of water are critical for a good crop.

Uptake

The passive uptake of water through the roots of the plant begins with water transpiration from the leaves through openings called stomata. Water vapour moves from areas of high water vapour pressure in the leaves through the stomata to areas of lower pressure outside the plant. Under conditions of high humidity, less water vapour will be lost from the plant because there is a higher water vapour pressure outside the plant (resulting in a lower pressure difference between the inside of the leaf and the surrounding air) than there is when the humidity is lower. This process begins a chain reaction whereby water is drawn up through the xylem to replace that lost through the leaves. Consequently, water in the soil is drawn in through the root hairs following the same gradient. Water uptake into the roots is also dependent on the moisture levels in the soil and the salt concentration in the soil. All three factors — relative humidity in the air, soil moisture and salt concentration in the soil solution — can affect water uptake.

Quantity

Water requirements for a crop can vary between 0.1 and 7 L of water per square metre of greenhouse per day, of which 90% is required during daylight hours. This varies according to plant species, plant size, relative humidity, solar radiation, temperature/heating and rate of ventilation. When sizing irrigation equipment (lines, pumps, nozzles) it is recommended that 1 L/m^2/hour be used as a base requirement for capacity sizing. The total annual water requirement for a year-round greenhouse operation in a recirculating system exceeds the Ontario annual precipitation by about 25%–35%. This means that rainwater collected from the greenhouse roof alone does not fulfill the annual requirements. Water is particularly critical during the summer.

Quality

In addition to having a plentiful and reliable supply of water, the quality must also meet certain criteria, the most important of which are:

- the concentration of suspended particulates, which can affect irrigation equipment or foliage residue with overhead watering
- the amount of dissolved chemicals/elements, which can impact on plant growth and nutrition.

It is the second of these (the amount of dissolved chemicals) that causes growers the most concern. The specific requirements for water quality depend on several factors:

- The type of growing/irrigation system to be used. Is it a once-through or recirculating top irrigation system (soil or substrate), or a recirculating system (subirrigation system for potted plants) or nutrient film technique.

- Water quality standards must be higher for a recirculating system as certain ions may accumulate in the solution, and there is the increased potential for spread of root diseases.

- Good drainage for excess water in case the need for leaching arises.

- The type of crops to be grown and their specific needs or sensitivities for particular elements such as boron, fluoride, zinc, etc.

In situations where crops are being irrigated from the top (overhead) with no recirculation, a simple water analysis will suffice to determine water quality. This analysis includes electrical conductivity (EC), hydrogen ion (pH), sodium (Na^+), chloride (Cl^-), and sulphate (SO_4^{2-}) concentration. For sub-irrigation or in recirculating systems, a complete water analysis including bicarbonates (HCO_3^-) and micronutrients such as iron (Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+}), boron (B), zinc (Zn^{2+}), manganese (Mn^{2+}) and copper (Cu^{2+}) is recommended.

EC

The EC is a measurement of the total amount of ions (or ionic charge) in the solution. The total ionic charge is measured by an electrical conductivity (EC) meter, and is often referred to as the total soluble salts. A high number of ionic charges results in a high EC. The EC measures the conductivity of a solution by means of two electrodes, each 1 cm^2 in size and 1 cm apart. It is expressed in millimhos/cm (mmho/cm) or milli-Siemens/cm (mS/cm or dS/m) at the standard temperature of 25°C. Another way of referring to soluble salts is by the ionic concentration in equivalent weight per litre (eq/L or meq/L), which represents the amount of charge provided by all ions in solution.

To convert between eq/L and mS/cm:

- 1 meq/L ≈ 0.055 mS/cm ≈ 55µS/cm
- 1 mS/cm = 1,000 µS/cm ≈18.2 meq/L

where the 'm' represents milli (0.001 or 1 part per thousand) and the µ represents micro (0.000001 or 1 part per million).

Remember that an EC meter does not measure the concentration of specific ions but the total sum of all ionic charges. A higher value indicates a higher concentration of ions in solution, and the more difficult it is for the plant to absorb water from this solution due to the increased osmotic pressure. The EC meter should be calibrated on a regular basis with a standard solution with a known EC. For example 0.01 M potassium chloride (KCl), made by dissolving 0.74 g KCl in 1 L water, has an EC of 1.4 mS/cm at 25°C. With repeated use of the meter, the EC reading becomes lower as the electrodes oxidize. Clean the electrodes by placing them in an acid solution (pH 1.0–2.0) overnight. If the EC meter is not temperature-corrected to 25°C, increase the measured values by 2% for each 1°C less than 25°C.

A general quality classification for water is given in Table 2–1, *Classification of Water Quality Based on Electrical Conductivity (EC) and Certain Specifications.* It is a modified version of the Dutch and Ohio recommendations. Note that all conditions must be met in order to place a sample in a certain class.

TABLE 2–1. Classification of Water Quality Based on Electrical Conductivity (EC) and Certain Specifications

Class	E.C. (mS/ cm)	Na^+ (ppm)	Cl^- (ppm)	SO_4^{2-} (ppm)
1	<0.5	<30	<50	<100
2	0.5–1.0	30–60	50–100	100–200
3	1.0–1.5	60–90	100–150	200–300

Water quality of Class 1 is good for all purposes. Most water obtained from Lakes Erie and Ontario falls within this category. Use water belonging to Class 2 only in substrate and soil culture where adequate leaching can take place. It is unsuitable for a nutrient film technique and salt-sensitive crops grown in sub-irrigation systems. Class 3 is not recommended for salt-sensitive crops (e.g., primula, African violet, gloxinia), crops grown in a limited root volume or recirculating systems. If the salt level exceeds 1.5 mS/cm it is considered marginally suitable for greenhouse irrigation. In some cases crops can be grown, but yields may be reduced as a result. The toxic concentration for sodium (Na^+) is lower than that for chlorides (Cl^-) due to the fact that sodium has a tendency to be absorbed in soil or humus particles and accumulates in the soil. It may interfere with the uptake of potassium, calcium and magnesium. Chlorides have less tendency to accumulate due to their negative charge. Some crops (e.g., cucumber, azalea) are chloride sensitive. Note that sodium levels in most areas in Ontario are low while sulphates are relatively high due to the presence of gypsum in the aquifers. Most crops do not require more than 100 ppm of sulphates (33 ppm elemental sulphur) to meet their nutritional requirement for sulphur.

Why Measure EC?

Even though the EC measurement does not indicate which nutrients are present or in what quantity, it does provide an overall level of the nutrient status of the solution. A high EC means that there are many dissolved ions in solution, which makes it difficult for the plant roots to take up water. In severe cases of high EC, roots may lose water under such conditions, leading to root damage or death. This generally occurs when there is insufficient leaching, plants are overfertilized or the irrigation water is of poor quality (high EC). Foliage may be dark-green and small, and plants may wilt even though the media is not dry.

A low EC means that there are few dissolved ions in solution, and it is easier for roots to take up water. The plants will be more lush and may be underfertilized since there are not as many nutrients available. However, root growth will be encouraged. Low EC often leads to a deficiency of one of the macro-elements (nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, calcium, magnesium or sulphur).

How to Measure EC of the Growing Medium

There are four main ways to measure EC in a substrate sample:

- saturated-media extraction (SME) method
- Spurway (1 soil:2 water) dilution technique
- pour-through
- squeeze method.

The SME and Spurway techniques involve removing a sample of substrate from the root zone and taking measurements of the filtrate. With the SME, sufficient water is added to the substrate, so that it becomes saturated, while with the Spurway technique, 1 volume of soil is mixed with 2 volumes of water. These are the most commonly used techniques in an analytical laboratory. Across North America, the SME is the most common greenhouse media extraction procedure used by university and private laboratories. The EC using SME is usually about 2.5 times greater than that measured by the 1:2 Spurway technique.

The pour-through technique is done by pouring distilled or deionized water in at the top of the pot and collecting the first 50 mL of the leachate for EC and pH readings. This method is rapid and very useful for in-house monitoring, but the water has to be poured evenly and consistently over the soil surface. Another drawback is that high values can be found in some older (especially sub-irrigated) pots due to high salts at the top of the growing medium, while the root zone may actually have lower EC values.

Another option for in-house monitoring is the squeeze technique where plants are removed from the pot, and the lower half of the root ball is squeezed to extract the root-zone nutrient solution. This gives a fairly good representation of the actual *in situ* soil solution in contact with active roots. This technique is widely used for monitoring media EC in plug seedling trays. Because of the small sample solution extracted, an EC meter that can be used with only 12 drops of solution must be used.

Interpretation of EC Data

The nutrient demand of a crop depends on the crop development and can be divided into three stages. Initially there is a low demand during seed germination or rooting of cuttings, followed by a high demand during the very active vegetative stage of crop growth and finally a lower demand as the plants reach maturity. As a general rule, shelf life is improved by lowering the nutrient levels (and reactivating the root system) towards the end of the crop (e.g., chrysanthemum and poinsettia); however, some crops such as Easter lily benefit from continued fertilization right up until shipping.

Table 2–2, *Relative EC Requirements of Actively Growing Greenhouse Crops Using the SME and Pour-through Methods*, provides suggested EC levels for the actively growing stages of various potted crops using two sampling techniques. For the initial and final growth stages, lower the EC by about 1.0 mS/cm. Sample five pots per representative area per week, and average and record the results.

- If the EC is too low, add fertilizer to raise it.

- If the EC is too high, leach with fresh water to lower it. Leaching can also be used for sub-irrigated crops although it is important to determine if the high salts are just in the upper part of the growing medium (which is normal in sub-irrigated crops and doesn't affect the root zone) or are in the root zone. If the root zone has a high EC, sub-irrigating with clear water is appropriate, as the salts are forced upwards.

Crops grown during low light conditions in the autumn and winter require a higher EC than during the summer, because reduced transpiration during this time of the year results in less water (and fertilizer) being taken up. In summer, the high transpiration rate and increased water uptake is often compensated by lower EC values in the nutrient solution.

TABLE 2–2. Relative EC Requirements of Actively Growing Greenhouse Crops Using the SME and Pour-through Methods

Nutrient Requirements	SME (mS/ cm)	Pour-through (mS/cm)	Crops
Low	0.75–2.0	1.0–2.6	African violet, azalea, begonia, calceolaria, calla, cineraria, cyclamen, geranium, gerbera, gloxinia, impatiens, orchid, primula, streptocarpus
Medium	1.5–3.0	2.0–3.5	Schlumbergera, clerodendrum, dahlia, exacum, zonal geranium, hibiscus, kalanchoe, lily, rose
High	2.0–3.5	2.6–4.6	Chrysanthemum, poinsettia

pH and Its Role

pH is an inverse measure (or a negative logarithm) of the concentration of hydrogen ions (H^+) in solution. A high number of H^+ ions results in a low pH, and a low number of H^+ gives a high pH. pH is measured on a scale of 1–14 where a pH less than (<) 7.0 is acidic, more than (>) 7.0 is basic, and 7.0 is considered neutral. The higher or lower the pH, the more strongly basic or acidic the solution. Each unit in the pH scale represents a change in the concentration of H^+ by a factor of 10.

Alkalinity

Alkalinity is a measure of the capacity of a product or solution to neutralize hydrogen ions. Alkaline products used in greenhouse production include dolomitic and calcitic limestone, hydrated lime, various fertilizers and substrates such as clay and sand. Alkalinity is somewhat connected to pH because it establishes the buffering capacity of a material; e.g., in solution with water it defines how resistant the water is to a change in pH. In Ontario, it is not unusual to have water with more than 200 ppm of bicarbonates, which originates from an underlying limestone base. In this case, the high concentration of bicarbonates neutralizes the hydrogen ions, resulting in a low concentration of H^+, and therefore a high pH.

How to Measure pH

There are three main methods of measuring pH in solution:

1. Litmus paper, which is the cheapest (but also the least accurate method), involves dipping the paper into the solution and comparing the colour change in the paper to established colour codes for different pH ranges.

2. pH pens are reasonably priced, quite accurate and easy to carry around in the greenhouse. They are simply dipped into the solution to provide a digital readout of the pH.

3. Electrode-type pH meters are the most accurate for measuring pH, but they are also the most expensive and require the most maintenance. Placing the pH probe directly into the solution until the reading stabilizes gives a quick reading. Many of the better pH meters have temperature compensation, but the temperature dependence is small (usually within 0.1–0.3 units). Rinse the probe between samples. Calibration is very important. The probes are not as stable as the probes of EC meters. Calibrate probes at least weekly using standard pH solutions of 4.0 and 7.0. Keep probes clean and stored in solution, and replace more frequently than EC probes.

Check the pH of the substrate using the slurry or solution collected for measuring EC. In this case, use distilled water as many water sources have pH buffering compounds (e.g., bicarbonates) that can affect the pH.

Why Measure pH?

Although hydrogen ions themselves are not considered a nutrient element, pH does influence the solubility and thus the availability of other nutrients (especially micronutrients). For instance, most positive ions (cations) such as iron, manganese and calcium as well as phosphates, are more soluble at lower pH (and can be tied up in unavailable forms at higher pHs), while molybdenum is more available at a higher pH. The pH also directly influences the colonization of certain pathogens in the soil that maybe harmful to plants.

Different crops have different sensitivities to pH based on their sensitivities to some of these micronutrients (or lack of them). For example, pH <5.5 can result in the accumulation and toxicity of nutrients such as manganese and iron in marigold and geranium. In other plants such as azalea and hydrangea, a low pH is required to ensure maximum uptake of iron and aluminum essential for proper leaf and bloom colour. A pH of 5.5–6.5 is considered optimal for most crops grown in soilless mixes with more than 50% organic matter. Table 2–3, *Optimal pH Range for Various Crops*, lists crops with more specific optimal pH ranges.

TABLE 2–3. Optimal pH Range for Various Crops

Crop	Optimal Range
Marigold, geranium, celosia, Easter lily	6.0–6.6 (+/- 0.2)
Pansy, petunia, snapdragon, vinca, salvia, blue hydrangea	5.4–5.8
Azalea	4.8–5.4

Other factors to consider include the following:

- It is desirable for crops sensitive to low pH, such as geranium and marigold, to have slightly higher pH.
- Crops such as pot chrysanthemum, which tend to force the pH up over time, should have a lower pH early in the crop.
- Consider the stage of crop growth (age). At flowering, pH is often not as critical as it is earlier in the crop.
- The fertilizers being used also affect the pH of both the nutrient solution and media. Know whether the complete fertilizer you are using is basic or acidic in reaction. This is stated on the fertilizer packaging as the potential acidity by the number of kg of calcitic limestone per tonne of fertilizer. Likewise, if the fertilizer is basic in reaction, then it is stated as the potential basicity.

Because of the bicarbonate content and the use of soilless media, most growers now adjust the pH of their irrigation water using either phosphoric, nitric or sulphuric acid.

Adjusting the pH

Irrigation Water

For many smaller growers, injecting acid through their fertilizer injector is the method of choice. Be sure that the injector is designed to handle acids. For other growers, installation of in-line pH probes controlling an acid pump is the method of choice. Both methods work well. Rates of acid required are shown in Table 2–4, *Volume of Acid Required to Neutralize 61 ppm* HCO_3^- *per 100,000 L of Water.*

Leave about 60 ppm bicarbonates in the irrigation water as a buffer and to provide a margin of error against small mistakes in calculation or dosing. If the initial level of bicarbonates is 240 ppm, approximately 180 ppm needs to be neutralized; in this case, three times as much acid as is indicated in the table would be needed.

When 1 mmol/L of bicarbonate is neutralized with different acids, the following nutrients are added to the solution:

- if using nitric acid, 14 ppm nitrogen (in nitrate form)
- if using phosphoric acid, 31 ppm of phosphorus (as 71 ppm P_2O_5
- if using sulphuric acid, 16 ppm sulphur (as 48 ppm sulphates).

TABLE 2–4. Volume of Acid Required to Neutralize 61 ppm HCO_3^- (1 mmol/L) per 100,000 L of Water

Acid	Spec. Gravity (kg/ L)	Volume of Acid (L)
Phosphoric (85%)	1.7	6.8
Nitric (67%)	1.5	6.6
Sulphuric (93%)	1.8	2.8

Media

If the pH is too low, consider one or more of the following steps:

For soilless mixes

- Discontinue acidifying water supply.
- Shift to a basic-reaction fertilizer (high in nitrate nitrogen).
- Use potassium bicarbonate (100–200 kg/1,000 L) of stock @1:100 dilution, with an EC in the final solution of about 1.5–2.0 mS/cm.
- If limestone is used, the amount to be added depends on the type and ratio of the ingredients. Sphagnum peat moss (pH 3.5–4.5) and bark (pH 4.0) are acidic. The amount of limestone needed to neutralize sphagnum moss from a pH 3.5 to a pH 5.5 is about 6–7 kg/m^3 of loose peat moss. Alkaline materials are often the baked-clay types such as Haydite and Crackpot or sand. Adding clay additives with a high pH should reduce the amount of limestone needed. Check the pH after preparation but before planting. The pH of newly prepared moist media will continue to rise for about 10 days.

For soil beds

- To increase the pH by 1 unit, use 4.8 kg limestone per 100 m^2.
- For a soil with a higher clay content or a higher organic matter content, increase the recommended amount by about 25%.

- Two to three weeks after application, check the soil pH to see if the desired pH level has been attained. Note that the finer the limestone, the quicker its reaction with the soil.

- The rate of pH change is also affected by temperature, moisture and aeration conditions of the soil. Changes will occur most rapidly when soils or soilless media are warm, moist and well-aerated.

- The use of hydrated lime in greenhouses has some severe drawbacks, as it reacts very quickly and completely. Proper distribution of the material throughout the soil mixture is difficult and, consequently, the use of this material is very limited.

If the media pH is too high, it can be difficult to lower, but one or more of the following steps will help:

- Increase the acidity of the irrigation water. Usually there is no harm in lowering pH of the nutrient solution to 5.2–5.4, while maintaining 30–60 ppm of bicarbonate (see above).

- Discontinue using basic-reacting fertilizers such as calcium nitrate.

- Instead use more ammonium-based fertilizers.

- Drench with iron sulphate @ 5 kg/1,000 L of water. Be sure to lightly wash the foliage immediately after to avoid burning.

- Use elemental sulphur @ 15 kg /1,000 L of water. This treatment requires 3–4 weeks to react.

See also Table 2–5, *Adjusting pH for Soilbeds.*

TABLE 2–5. Adjusting pH for Soilbeds

Materials	kg/100 m^2 to Lower pH 0.5–1 Unit*	Rate of pH Change
Finely ground sulphur	2.5	Slow
Aluminum sulphate	15	Rapid
Iron sulphate	15	Moderate

* Rates are for light to medium soils. For heavier soils with more organic matter, increase rate by one-third. The rates per m^3 of potting soils are one-half of the above recommended rates

Soilless Growing Media

Soilless mixes have replaced soil-based mixes over the past 10–20 years. Whether the mix is used for plant growing, propagation, container growing, bench crops or even cut flowers, there has been a gradual reduction in the use of actual soil *and* an increase in the use of artificial ingredients. Soilless mixes are available already prepared in bags or bales, in bulk or as separate ingredients that can be blended together.

Why Use Soilless Mixes?

Soilless mixes offer several advantages over a conventional soil mix:

- There is uniformity and consistency from one batch to the next.

- Most are considered to be essentially disease- and insect-free, thereby reducing the need for costly pasteurization.

- There is less likelihood of contamination from herbicide residues, which can occur with mixes containing field soil.

- The ingredients of a soilless mix are readily available and most are much lighter than soil.

- Soilless mixes have greater pore space and higher water-holding capacity than soil mixes.

Functions of a Good Growing Medium

A growing medium should perform four basic functions:

- provide an anchor system for the plant roots
- store water for plant-root absorption
- provide a buffer for nutrients absorbed by the roots
- provide oxygen (air space) for root respiration.

Common Ingredients

Sphagnum peat moss

This is one of the most widely used materials, due to its physical characteristics and price. Sphagnum moss is a primitive plant that grows in bogs. While the upper part of the plant continues to grow, the bottom part dies, decomposing into peat. The moss leaves consist of living cells that may or may not contain chlorophyll, as well as dead "sphagnum" cells, which contain water and air. The dead sphagnum cells are unique in that they can absorb and conduct water. These cells have lignified walls that prevent their collapse when drying out. Water in these cells is absorbed by capillary action. Because the leaf and stem cells are surface active and are generally negatively charged, they can adsorb nutrients (e.g., positive ions) in a similar way to clay particles. Nutrients can also be absorbed in the sphagnum cells as dissolved ions in water.

A sphagnum peat bog has a top, middle and bottom. Because of the way sphagnum grows, the older mosses will be at the bottom, and are the most decomposed. These are darkest in colour and finest in particle size. The top layers are more yellowish and coarser in structure. The coarser the peat, the lower the bulk density, the greater the air space and the lower the water-holding capacity (by volume).

The method of peat moss harvesting plays an important role in particle size distribution. Peat is harvested in two ways—the vacuum method and the block procedure. Vacuum harvesting involves loosening the surface, air drying and vacuuming the top surface of the bog. Block harvesting involves digging the peat in chunks and letting them dry over winter. The following spring, the chunks are loosened and packaged. Block-harvested peat is coarser than vacuum-harvested.

Cation exchange capacity (CEC) gives an indication of how many cations can be adsorbed per unit weight and how their supply to plants will be regulated. With its high CEC, peat moss is well suited as a nutrient reserve and buffering agent. Pure peat moss, however, contains very few nutrients as determined by the electrical conductivity of the saturated medium (EC< 0.5 mS/cm).

Due to its naturally low pH (3.5–4.5), peat moss is considered to be free of active pathogenic diseases, although dormant pathogenic spores or weed seeds may be present. Some people claim that peat moss suppresses fungal diseases.

The low cost on a volume basis makes peat moss one of the more desirable mix ingredients. Normally, commercial and grower-made mixes today consist of 50%–100% sphagnum peat moss. The sphagnum peat mosses available in Ontario are generally sold in a compressed form and will expand by 40%–60% depending on compression level.

Vermiculite

This is a mica-like material that has been expanded under high temperature (900°C). This material can be compared to clay particles except that it has lost its swelling and shrinkage capabilities. It has a high cation exchange capacity (CEC), similar to peat moss on a weight basis, and contains considerable potassium and magnesium ions. It improves air porosity, provides structure to the medium (less shrinkage) and makes rewetting of a mix easier. Water can also be absorbed internally between the platelets. Acidity is near neutral, and bulk density is 80–100 kg/m^3. Three grades are normally available — coarse, fine and regular. It is mined in Washington and South Africa.

Perlite

This is an aluminum-silicate of volcanic origin that has been heated to about 1,000°C. It is similar to popcorn as it consists of a number of closed, air-filled cells. Water is absorbed primarily on the outer surface and to a lesser degree within the particle. This inert material is primarily added to the mix to improve aeration and drainage as well as structural stability. The pH is about 7.0, and the CEC is negligible. Bulk density is similar to that of vermiculite or peat moss, about 100 kg/m^3.

Rockwool

This product is manufactured from basalt and limestone by spinning the molten rock. There are two forms available, namely, the bonded product and the granulated material. The base material is sterile and does not contain any CEC or an appreciable level of soluble salts. The bonded product is cut into slabs 15 or 20 cm wide, 7.5–10 cm thick, and 90–200 cm long, and is used primarily for the production of greenhouse vegetables (tomato, cucumber and pepper) or cut flowers (rose, gerbera). It can be purchased with or without a plastic sleeve. Slabs contain a binder for stability and a wetting agent to facilitate water absorption and distribution. The granulated material comes in three sizes (fine, medium and coarse) and does not contain any binder and/or wetting agent. Granulated rockwool is added to a mix to increase pore space and water-holding capacity and for easier rewetting if the medium is allowed to dry out.

Rockwool can also be manufactured from steel slag. This material, often referred to as mineral wool, generally has a relatively high pH (7–8) and higher levels of micronutrients compared to rockwool.

Polystyrene chips

This is a waste product created from polystyrene bead boards. The material is inert, with negligible CEC and near-neutral pH. Its role in a media is similar to perlite except that there is no surface absorption of water. Bulk density is 25 kg/m^3, and it cannot be pasteurized due to shrinkage. It has a tendency to float to the surface of the pot and can be a nuisance with recirculating sub-irrigation systems. Soil-mix uniformity can be of concern because of its tendency to separate from the rest of the mixture.

Turface®

This is a baked clay with neutral reaction (pH 7.0). Because the bulk density is 750 kg/m^3 and the CEC is high for regular grade, the material is used to increase the weight and the buffering capabilities of the mix. The CEC is about the same as vermiculite.

Haydite®

This is a shale expanded by treating to 1200°C. Bulk density is about 800 kg/m^3 depending on size and grade. It has a high pH (8.5–9.5) and can be obtained in several grades according to particle size. The neutralizing capacity of this material has to be considered when used in appreciable quantities.

Gro-Bark®

Composted barks may suppress toxic substances and plant pathogens. Hardwood barks are generally composted for three months, while softwood barks take about 1½ months to compost. Nitrogen is generally added at 1 kg or 0.5 kg/m^3 for hardwood and softwood bark, respectively, before composting. Gro-Bark, a commercially available product, is a blend of aged pine bark and sawdust that has been naturally composted for 10–40 years. It ranges in pH from 4.5–6.5 and is low in salts. Available in bulk only, it is often used as bedding in walkways, as an amendment for containerized nursery material, or as a substitute for peat moss.

Grow-Rich®

Grow-Rich is a composted material produced from papermill sludge and other organic materials (animal manures, sawdust and corncobs). The bulk density is about 400 kg/m^3, while typical particle size ranges from 3–6 mm. The pH is between 5.5 and 6.5, and soluble salts are near 1.5–2.0 mS/cm, using the saturated-medium extraction method. As a consequence, the final potting mix should not contain more than 25% of this material.

Worm Castings

Worm castings are a byproduct of worm raising. They are high in organic content and stable in structure. The pH is 6.0–7.5 while soluble salts are between 1.0 and 1.5 mS/cm. Bulk density is about 200 kg/m^3. It should be used sparingly in a mix (less than 25% of the volume) to provide structural stability and more pore space to the media. It is somewhat hydrophobic in nature, may contain weed seeds and is quite expensive.

Sand

Although technically a type of soil, sand is quite often incorporated into soilless mixes to provide weight. It is about 15 times heavier than the other major components (peat, perlite and vermiculite). Drawbacks with sand include:

- its grinding action on the other ingredients if mixed too long, causing a reduction in air space
- its potential for containing plant pathogens, therefore requiring pasteurization.

However, sand (similar to soil) improves wettability of the mix. Depending on its source in Ontario, sand often has a high pH (about 8.5), indicating the presence of free calcium carbonates. When using, consider its neutralizing capacity.

Physical Characteristics of a Soilless Mix

A soilless (or soil) mix has three major components — air, solids and water. The air space is needed to provide oxygen for root respiration and to allow nitrification and some microbial activity. The air space in a mix complements the water portion, since air replaces the water absorbed by the plant roots. The air/water ratio in a mix is determined by the particle size of the solids. After a coarse mix is watered, air will enter the mix more quickly than in finer mixes but may not be distributed uniformly. Therefore, a coarse mix has relatively more air and less water-filled pore space than a fine one. A lack of air space can be a problem when using a fine-textured mix during the lower light periods of the year. Another factor that affects the air:water ratio is the height of the pot; the taller the pot, the greater the air:water ratio.

After watering, a soilless mix may have up to 75% of the total space filled by water, with the remainder taken up by solids (5%–10%) and air (15%–20%). In a soil mix, solids compose 50% of the space, with the balance divided between air and water. This basic difference between a soil and a soilless mix therefore necessitates a change in crop management. The bulk density of most soilless mixes is about 100–200 kg/m^2. Shrinkage of the mix is of some concern due to the changing physical properties, but also due to the volume of the medium required for a given pot size. Peat moss and rockwool will both shrink. The addition of structural components such as perlite or vermiculite, or compressing the mix when filling the pots, helps to alleviate medium shrinkage.

See also Table 2–6, *Example of a Soilless Mix with Amendments.*

Preparing a Soilless Mix

There are several considerations to take into account when preparing a soilless mix:

- water-holding capacity
- air porosity
- nutrient availability
- buffering capacity
- weight
- price.

TABLE 2–6. Example of a Soilless Mix with Amendments

Ingredients	Percent (by volume)
Sphagnum peat moss	50–60%
Vermiculite, perlite, polystyrene, bark, granulated rockwool	20–40%
Turface®, Haydite®, sand	10–20%
Amendments	**Rate/m^3 of mix***
Limestone (fine grade, dolomitic)	3.5 kg
Superphosphate	1.5 kg
Potassium nitrate (12-0-44) or ammonium nitrate (34-0-0)	1.0/0.4 kg
Trace elements	0.25–0.5 kg
Wetting agent	100 mL

The major component in most soilless mixes is sphagnum peat moss due to its excellent growing properties. The quality of the peat moss is important as it is the principal ingredient. A coarse peat provides more natural air space and could be used at a higher percentage in the mix. A finer mix, with less air space, should constitute less of the final mix. For aeration purposes and to give structure to the mix (with less shrinkage), use one or a combination of the following ingredients: vermiculite, perlite, granulated rockwool or polystyrene chips. Vermiculite and rockwool are excellent materials, as they increase water-holding capacity and have good rewetting characteristics. The third ingredient (Turface®, Haydite® or sand) is added for weight, buffering capacity and/or pore space.

Add limestone (3.5 kg/m^3 of mix) to bring the pH of the mixture to an acceptable level (based on a mix containing 50% peat moss). The amount of limestone indicated does not take into account any neutralizing effects from the other ingredients (e.g., Haydite®, sand) or the acidifying effect of some fertilizers (ammonium nitrate). It may take one week after mix preparation and initial wetting before the pH is stabilized.

When using calcitic limestone, supply magnesium in the form of Epsom salts (0.5 kg/m^3). Add superphosphate for phosphorus, sulphur and calcium. If nitrogen and/or potassium are also added, use potassium nitrate (12-0-44) at 0.5–1.0 kg/m^3, or ammonium nitrate (34-0-0) at 0.3–0.5 kg/m^3. The nitrogen addition would amount to about 0.25–0.50 g nitrogen per 15-cm pot. In some instances, calcium nitrate may be used as the nitrogen source at 0.5 kg/m^3. Use Nutritrace to add trace elements Fe, Cu, B, Zn and Mn. As a wetting agent, a non-ionic reagent such as Aqua-Grow® or Agral-90 is suitable. Dissolve the wetting agent in warm water and spray over the mix for uniform distribution. Sometimes a combination of trace elements and wetting agent is available in granular form. For convenience purposes, many growers have their amendments premixed by their fertilizer supplier. Most ingredients can be mixed when dry. Screw-turn and tumbler-type mechanical mixers can be used, but prevent pulverization of components by minimizing mixing time. Add water when the ingredients are being mixed to prevent dust and promote stable particles.

Chemical Characteristics of Mixes

After preparing a mix, always check the total soluble salts (EC) and pH. The EC gives an indication of the nutrient status by measuring the conductivity of the solution, while the pH plays a major role in determining the nutrient availability (see EC section on page 17).The optimal pH for organic soilless mixes is around 5.5 (±0.5). This contrasts with the recommendation of pH 6.5 for soil mixes. In the peat-like mixes, a high pH (over 6.5) can cause iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), boron (B), copper (Cu), zinc (Zn) and phosphorus (P) deficiencies, while a pH of 5.0–5.5 can cause molybdenum deficiency (especially in poinsettia). Adding ammonium nitrate (34-0-0) at 400 g/m^3 may reduce the pH by about 0.5.

Ready-Made Mixes

Most commercially prepared mixes have been tested and will perform well when managed properly. When comparing prices between commercial mixes and mixing your own, consider the costs of materials, mixing, equipment, storage space and labour. Smaller operations often use ready-made mixes. Some manufacturers will blend and deliver mixes to growers' specifications. The ready-made mixes usually follow the above outline of ingredients, although the third major ingredient (Turface® or sand) is usually omitted. Most ready-made mixes have a pH of 5.5–6.0 and an EC of 1.2–1.8 mS/cm using the saturated-media extraction method, while the water-holding capacity is about 70% on a volume basis after a 15-cm pot is totally saturated and allowed to drain.

Composts

Some growers may choose to use composted material as part of their soilless mix. Composts may contain antagonistic fungi and bacteria (to suppress plant diseases) as well as other beneficial microorganisms (such as nitrifying bacteria). Composts made from assortments of organic byproducts are available in bulk from various suppliers at relatively low costs. These may be used successfully as amendments, but it is advisable to check pH and soluble salts before use.

Common Problems with Soilless Mixes

- Mixing the ingredients of a soilless mix for too long grinds the particles together, breaking them down, and thereby destroying medium structure. A general guideline is 3–5 minutes at 12–14 rpm.
- Rewetting a soilless mix after it has dried out is difficult, but not impossible. Use several light waterings or mist applications. Alternatively, add a wetting agent to the water at approximately 1 mL/L of warm water. Normally the wetting agent is added when mixing the ingredients. Adding granulated rockwool or vermiculite improves the rate of rewetting after severe drying out. Excessive levels of wetting agent incorporated into the medium (e.g., 2–3 times the recommended rate) can result in the development of only a few long stringy roots or a failure of the roots to penetrate the medium. This may cause overall stunting of sensitive species, including impatiens, begonia and cucumber.
- Algal growth on the surface may restrict seedling emergence, reduce water penetration and/or serve as a food source for fungus gnats. Some fungicides may reduce algal growth. As the plants grow, reduced light levels on the surface also will restrict development of algae. Agribrom added to the irrigation water at 5–10 ppm of residual bromine will help to control/prevent algal growth. Algae-free irrigation water also reduces this problem.
- Optimal nutrient levels are usually higher than in a soil mix. Therefore, keep the crop well fertilized. Soluble salts readings can safely be about twice as high as those in a soil mix.
- Symptoms of magnesium deficiency show up quickly on crops such as tomato and chrysanthemum. This is because most conventional water-soluble "complete" fertilizers do not contain magnesium. Preplant incorporation or separate feedings of Epsom salts (magnesium sulphate) or magnesium nitrate will help control this situation.

The Role of Nutrients in Plant Growth

Plant nutrients can be divided (depending on the quantity required of each by the plant) into macro- and micronutrients (see Table 2–7, *Macro- and Micronutrients in plants*). Also shown is the form in which the element is taken up by the plant and its mobility within the plant.

TABLE 2–7. Macro- and Micronutrients in Plants

Elements	Form	Mobility
Macronutrients		
Carbon (C)	Carbon dioxide (CO_2)	M
Hydrogen (H)	Water (H_2O)	M
Oxygen (O)	CO_2, H_2O	M
Nitrogen (N)	Ammonium (NH_4^+), Nitrate (NO_3^-)	M
Phosphorus (P)	Dihydrogen phosphate ($H_2PO_4^-$)	M
Potassium (K)	Potassium (K^+)	M
Calcium (Ca)	Calcium (Ca^{2+})	I
Magnesium (Mg)	Magnesium (Mg^{2+})	M
Sulphur (S)	Sulphate (SO_4^{2-}), Sulphur dioxide (SO_2)	M
Sodium (Na)	Sodium (Na^+)	N/A
Silicon (Si)	H_4SiO_4	N/A
Micronutrients		
Iron (Fe)	Ferrous (Fe^{2+}), Ferric (Fe^{3+})	I
Manganese (Mn)	Manganese (Mn^{2+})	I
Copper (Cu)	Copper (Cu^{2+})	I
Zinc (Zn)	Zinc (Zn^{2+})	I
Molybdenum (Mo)	Molybdate (MoO_4^{2-})	M
Boron (B)	Boric acid (H_3BO_3)	I
Chlorine (Cl)	Chloride (Cl^-)	M
Aluminum (Al)	Aluminum (Al^{3+})	M

M = mobile, I = immobile, N/A = not available

There are two main factors affecting the mineral content of a plant. The first is genetically determined and accounts for the fact that N and K content of many plants (46%) is about 10 times higher than that of P and Mg, which are in turn 100–1,000× higher than most micronutrients.

The second is the availability of nutrients in the growing medium and the ability of the plant to absorb them. In practice, this is the only factor growers can influence. Up to a certain level, the nutrient content of a given plant increases with a higher content of nutrients in the growing medium. Beyond this optimum level, no benefit can be expected from further increase in availability.

Uptake and Translocation of Nutrients

Macronutrients

In general, all macronutrients except calcium are mobile within the plant. Mobile nutrients can move in both the xylem and phloem and will be translocated to where they are most needed, usually developing shoots, flowers or bracts.

- *Carbon* — is taken up primarily in the form of CO_2 through the stomata in the leaves. It is then transformed into organic material through the process of photosynthesis. To a lesser extent it may also be taken up in the bicarbonate form (HCO_3^-) from the nutrient solution.

- *Hydrogen* — water is the major supplier of H^+ through absorption by the root hairs.

- *Oxygen* — is taken up as CO_2 during daylight, and as oxygen dissolved in water through the roots.

- *Nitrogen* — both ammonium (NH_4^+) and nitrate (NO^{3-}) forms can be absorbed by the roots and metabolized by the plants. The rate of NO^{3-} uptake is usually greater than that of NH_4^+. However, this depends strongly on pH. NH_4^+ uptake occurs best in a neutral medium and decreases with a lower pH. The reverse is true for NO_3^-. High carbohydrate levels in the plant (e.g., during summer) favour uptake of NH_4^+. Within the xylem, nitrogen is transported as nitrate and amino acids.

- *Phosphorus* — the majority of P is actively taken up (from very low concentrations in the soil to higher levels in the xylem) as $H_2PO_4^-$.

- *Potassium* — is taken up as K^+, often actively, and is mobile within the plant.

- *Calcium* — is absorbed passively (from higher concentrations in the soil to lower concentrations in the plant) as Ca^{2+}. Calcium in the xylem sap is translocated in an upward direction within the transpiration stream, and thus depends on transpiration rate and humidity (or vapour pressure deficit). Uptake is also favoured by NO_3^-. Within the plant, calcium is not mobile.

- *Magnesium* — the competitive effects of other cations (e.g., potassium and ammonium) are important in determining rate of magnesium uptake. It is taken up passively by the transpiration stream and is mobile in the xylem.

- *Sulphur* — Plants absorb sulphur mainly in the form of sulphate (SO_4^{2-}), which may be taken up actively.

Micronutrients

All micronutrients are essentially immobile. They can be absorbed by the roots, moved through the plant in the transpiration stream and distributed to various plant parts. However, they cannot be moved out of the various plant tissues and redistributed to other plant parts if needed.

- *Iron* — uptake is influenced by rate of plant metabolism as well as by the presence of other cations such as manganese (Mn^{2+}) and copper (Cu^{2+}). Iron uptake is depressed by high pH, root damage, and high levels of phosphate, manganese, boron and calcium; it is enhanced by high ammonium (NH_4^+). Iron (Fe^{3+}) is not mobile between plant organs.

- *Manganese* — uptake is influenced by plant metabolism (similar to iron). Low soil temperature causes low metabolic activity and therefore reduced uptake (e.g., roses in soil beds in winter). Manganese is relatively immobile in the plant. Young plant tissue is usually rich in Mn^{2+}. Manganese availability is enhanced by low pH.

- *Copper* — similar to iron and manganese. Copper (Cu^{2+}) is not very mobile within the plant but can be translocated from older to younger leaves. There are generally very low levels in the plant compared to other micronutrients.

- *Zinc* — there is some disagreement as to whether zinc (Zn^{2+}) uptake is passive or active, although most researchers consider it active. It has a strong interaction with copper. Zinc is not very mobile within plants.

- *Molybdenum* — there is not a great deal known about molybdenum (MoO_4^{2-})except that poinsettia is one of a few plant species known to be sensitive to low levels. Molybdenum is important in the function of a major enzyme in plant metabolism.

- *Boron* — is probably taken up as undisassociated boric acid (H_3BO_3)and follows water flow through the roots. It is immobile within the plant and is concentrated more in older rather than younger leaves. Deficiency is found in the plant tip and toxicity in the older leaves.

Nutrient Analysis

Water

The raw water used for irrigation purposes should contain all the major elements needed for plant nutrition; however, the quantities must be adjusted based on a nutrient analysis. Water analysis will also indicate whether the water source is contaminated (*not* by microbial contamination) or whether the concentration of specific ions such as fluoride (F^-) or boron (B) may be too high. In addition, the bicarbonate level has to be known (not necessarily the pH) so the required amount of acid can be calculated to obtain a given pH. Table 2–8, *Maximum Desirable Concentrations of Specific Ions in Raw Water Used for Irrigation Purposes in a Greenhouse Using Soilless Substrates (Rockwool, Oasis, Peat or Coir),* lists the most common elements involved in plant nutrition and desirable levels in raw water to be used for irrigation.

TABLE 2–8. Maximum Desirable Concentrations of Specific Ions in Raw Water Used for Irrigation Purposes in a Greenhouse Using Soilless Substrates (Rockwool, Oasis, Peat or Coir)

Element	Maximum Desirable (ppm)
Nitrogen (NO_3^-)	5
Phosphorus ($H_2PO_4^-$)	5
Potassium (K^+)	5
Calcium (Ca^{2+})	120
Magnesium (Mg^{2+})	25
Chloride (Cl^-)	100
Sulphate (SO_4^{2-})	200
Bicarbonate (HCO_3^-)	30–60
Sodium (Na^+)	60
Iron (Fe^{3+} or Fe^{2+})	5
Boron (B)	0.5
Zinc (Zn^{++})	0.5
Manganese (Mn^{2+})	1.0
Copper (Cu^{2+})	0.2
Aluminum (Al^{3+})	5
Molybdenum (Mo)	0.02
Fluoride (F^-)	1
pH (H^+)	5.0–7.0

Following are comments regarding the various elements.

- *N, P, K* — Although used for fertilization purposes, the presence of high levels of these elements (nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium) in the raw water indicates contamination.

- Ca^{2+} *and* Mg^{2+} — The maximum desirable levels described above provide adequate levels of nutrition for most crops. Higher values do not necessarily mean toxicity, but can contribute to the hardness of the water.

- HCO_3^- — Most water sources in southern Ontario contain bicarbonates (HCO^{3-})in excess of the given range. Bicarbonates are not very toxic, but levels of 250+ ppm may create problems for plant growth. High levels provide a high alkalinity (pH), which over time may increase pH levels in the growing medium. The precipitation of calcium and/or magnesium carbonates causing leaf residues and the plugging of emitters is another disadvantage of high carbonate levels. Neutralize high bicarbonate levels by using nitric, phosphoric or sulphuric acid (see *Adjusting the pH*, page 20).

- Fe^{3+} — Iron in its oxidized form has a low solubility and can therefore easily precipitate as amorphous iron hydroxide, which plugs emitters. For drip-irrigation systems, levels higher than 0.25 ppm are undesirable.

- *B* — Boron can be quite toxic to plants and should be carefully controlled in substrate culture (less than 0.5 ppm) or for a recirculating system (less than 0.25 ppm).

- Zn^{2+} — Zinc can be found in water sources that have been in contact with galvanized metal (e.g., the rainwater from greenhouse roof). Again, the ions may accumulate in recirculating systems.

- Mn^{2+} — Although manganese is not often a problem except under special circumstances (steam pasteurization), it is believed to be toxic at high levels.

- Cu^{2+} — Copper levels may be higher than 0.2 ppm if organic media are used.

- Al^{3+}, *Mo*, F^- — Aluminum, molybdenum and fluoride are not commonly found at high concentrations in the water source. However, fluoride can cause serious damages to monocotyledons (lily, dracaena, spider plant).

- *pH* — Although hydrogen ions are not considered a nutrient element it is important to include this factor, as the availability of most nutrients is pH-dependent. For instance, most positively charged ions such as Fe, Mn and Ca, as well as phosphates, are more soluble (and therefore more available to the plant) at low pH, while molybdenum is more available at a higher pH. Most water sources in Ontario have a pH of about 7.5, due to high levels of bicarbonates. Acidification may be required (see *Adjusting the pH*, page 20). A pH lower than 5.0 is detrimental to the structure of rockwool slabs.

- See Appendix C for laboratories in Ontario that are accredited by OMAF to analyse water, nutrient solutions and media.

Soilless Media

Media testing for nutrient analysis used to be done by mixing water with the soil at a ratio of 1:2 (soil:water). Now the saturated-medium extract method using distilled water is the most widely used in North America; it measures the nutrients directly in the extract. This procedure provides an estimate of what is readily available to the plant in the root zone.

Sampling the Growing Medium

- *Soil* — Using a soil probe, take sufficient samples (20) of the area (ground beds) at a depth of between 10 cm and 25 cm and bulk the samples. Mix the bulked sample well, take a representative sample (approximately 600 g), put in a plastic bag and send to an OMAF-accredited laboratory approved for Saturated-Medium Extraction analysis (see *How to Measure EC of the Growing Medium*, page 18 and Appendix C). Analysis is done on a fee-for-service basis. For seasonal crops, have the soil tested well before the crop is planted. Allow enough time between sending the samples and planting the crop to make nutrient or pH adjustments.

- *Potting media* — Sample only the bottom two-thirds of the potting substrate (do not include the top layer, particularly when the crop is being sub-irrigated). Bulk together 20 samples; from this take a representative sample of approximately 600 g, place in a plastic bag and send to the laboratory. Growers should run their own EC and pH tests (between regular sampling for laboratory analysis) by drenching a number of pots with distilled water and measuring the leachate. These results compare fairly closely to the Saturated-Medium Extract used by a laboratory (see *Interpretation of EC Data*, page 18) and give a good indication of the total nutrient status, but not of the individual elements. To accurately track nutrient levels in the media, collect biweekly samples.

For interpretation of results and for adjustments to the growing medium, consult a greenhouse floriculture specialist.

Foliar

In floriculture, leaf tissue analysis is used primarily as a diagnostic tool to verify deficiency or toxicity symptoms, but also can be used to monitor nutrient levels during the cropping period. Different plant parts contain different levels of nutrients, but analysis of leaf tissue is most commonly used for diagnosing nutrient availability (uptake) in the soil. The mineral content of plants is usually expressed as a percentage on a dry weight basis for the macro-elements (N, P, K, etc.). For micro-elements (Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, B, Mo), mineral content may be expressed as milligram per gram (mg/g) or parts per million (ppm) of plant dry matter. Age of the plant parts is important as well. Young plant tissue tends to have higher contents of N, P and K compared to older tissue, which generally has higher levels of Ca, Mn, Fe and B. Therefore, harvest the most recently matured leaves of a plant for tissue analysis, if testing regularly to monitor the nutrient status.

Foliar analysis is often a more accurate way to assess the micro-nutrient status of the crop or the fertility program than analysing the media micro-nutrient levels. Sample the most recently matured leaves from several plants unless indicated otherwise. Usually 30–50 leaves are sufficient. Avoid leaves with disorders unless that is to be diagnosed, in which case take them as a separate sample. Ensure that samples are not contaminated with pesticides or foliar applications of fertilizer. If in doubt, rinse the leaves in distilled water and let them dry before packaging and sending them to the laboratory. Laboratories generally prefer pape bags over plastic so that the leaves do not rot.

Table 2–9, *Tissue Analysis Guidelines*, provides an overvie of the desirable ranges of nutrients. Factors that can affec nutrient content include plant age, position on plant (upper vs. lower leaves), cultivar, season, fertilizer regime number of days after fertilization, media pH, growth regulator application, presence of disease and temperature. These values are a guide only to the appropriate nutritiona status for these plants.

Recommended portion of plant to sample:

- chrysanthemum—uppermost leaves from mature flowering shoots
- exacum—shoot tips with one pair of mature leaves an all immature leaves
- rose—uppermost five-leaflet leaf on flowering stems
- other crops—the most recently mature leaf.

TABLE 2–9. Tissue Analysis Guidelines

Nutrient	African violet	Alstroemeria	Azalea	Rieger begonia	Wax begonia	Zygocactus (Schlumbergera)	Caladium
Nitrogen (%)	2.2–2.7	3.8–7.6	2.2–2.8	3.4–4.6	4.4–5.2	2.7–3.7	3.6–4.9
Phosphorous (%)	0.2–0.9	0.3–0.7	0.2–0.5	0.4–0.8	0.3–0.4	0.5–0.9	0.4–0.7
Potassium (%)	1.5–6.0	3.7–4.8	0.7–1.6	2.0–3.5	3.4–4.2	6.2–7.1	2.3–4.1
Calcium (%)	0.6–1.7	0.6–1.4	0.2–1.6	0.7–2.4	1.3–2.1	0.7–0.9	1.1–1.6
Magnesium (%)	0.7–1.1	0.2–0.4	0.1–0.6	0.3–0.8	0.6–1.0	1.6–2.2	0.1–0.3
Iron (ppm)	70–320	175–275	50–150	80–390	100–260	105–110	65–90
Manganese (ppm)	35–490	60–90	30–300	35–190	90–355	35–130	110–135
Zinc (ppm)	20–80	35–70	5–60	20–30	50–65	50–65	125–135
Copper (ppm)	5–30	5–15	5–15	5–10	10–15	10–15	5–10
Boron (ppm)	30–200	10–50	15–100	35–130	30–40	65–70	95–145

Nutrient	Calla	Carnation	Chrysanthemum	Cyclamen	Dieffenbachia[1]	Easter lily	Exacum
Nitrogen (%)	2.9–3.0	3.0–5.0	4.0–6.0	2.9–5.0	3.0–4.0	2.4–4.0	3.8–5.3
Phosphorous (%)	0.3–0.4	0.1–0.5	0.2–1.2	0.4–1.0	0.7–1.0	0.1–0.7	0.3–0.7
Potassium (%)	3.9–4.4	2.0–6.0	1.0–10.0	1.2–4.5	6.4–8.2	2.0–5.0	2.3–3.4
Calcium (%)	0.9–1.1	0.6–2.0	0.5–4.6	0.3–1.3	1.9–2.4	0.2–4.0	0.5–0.8
Magnesium (%)	0.3–0.4	0.2–0.6	0.1–1.5	0.4–1.3	0.4–0.8	0.3–2.0	0.4–0.7
Iron (ppm)	95–130	30–150	20–750	150–550	50–300	100–250	55–155
Manganese (ppm)	635–690	30–445	25–375	100–500	50–300	50–250	70–165
Zinc (ppm)	30–45	15–75	5–35	30–100	40–200	30–70	25–85
Copper (ppm)	5–10	5–30	5–50	5–20	3.5–30	5–25	5–75
Boron (ppm)	30–40	20–400	20–200	70–350	10–30	20–50	25–60

Nutrient	Ficus benjamina[1]	Freesia	Fuchsia	Ivy geranium	Regal geranium	Seed geranium	Zonal geranium
Nitrogen (%)	2.0–2.5	2.7–5.6	2.8–4.6	3.4–4.4	3.0–3.2	3.7–4.8	3.8–4.4
Phosphorous (%)	0.2–0.4	0.4–1.2	0.4–0.6	0.4–0.7	0.3–0.6	0.3–0.6	0.3–0.5
Potassium (%)	2.1–2.5	3.1–5.9	2.2–2.5	2.8–4.7	1.1–3.1	3.3–3.9	2.6–3.5
Calcium (%)	1.7–2.5	0.4–1.0	1.6–2.4	0.9–1.4	1.2–2.6	1.2–2.1	1.4–2.0
Magnesium (%)	0.3–0.4	0.3–1.8	0.4–0.7	0.2–0.6	0.3–0.9	0.2–0.4	0.2–0.4
Iron (ppm)	50–200	80–115	95–335	115–270	120–225	120–340	110–580
Manganese (ppm)	25–100	30–540	75–220	40–175	115–475	110–285	270–325
Zinc (ppm)	20–75	40–110	30–45	10–45	35–50	35–60	50–55
Copper (ppm)	5–10	5–130	5–10	5–15	5–10	5–15	5–15
Boron (ppm)	20–40	30–100	25–35	30–280	15–45	35–60	40–50

TABLE 2–9. Tissue Analysis Guidelines (Cont'd)

Nutrient	Gerbera	Gloxinia	Hibiscus	Hydrangea	Common impatiens	Nephrolepis[1]	New Guinea impatiens
Nitrogen (%)	3.3–4.1	3.3–3.8	3.5–4.5	2.0–3.8	4.3–5.3	1.7–2.5	3.3–4.9
Phosphorous (%)	0.3–0.7	0.3–0.5	0.2–0.6	0.3–2.5	0.6–0.8	0.3–0.6	0.3–0.8
Potassium (%)	3.1–3.9	4.5–5.0	2.0–2.9	2.5–6.3	1.8–2.8	2.5–3.9	1.9–2.7
Calcium (%)	0.9–4.2	1.5–2.2	1.9–2.3	0.8–1.5	2.9–3.3	0.9–1.3	1.9–2.7
Magnesium (%)	0.3–2.8	0.4–0.5	0.5–0.7	0.2–0.4	0.6–0.8	0.6–0.7	0.3–0.8
Iron (ppm)	80–130	70–150	60–75	85–115	405–685	30–300	160–890
Manganese (ppm)	65–260	95–170	135–180	100–345	205–490	49–181	140–245
Zinc (ppm)	30–80	20–35	35–50	50–105	65–70	52–149	40–85
Copper (ppm)	5–10	5–20	5–10	5–10	10–15	10–15	5–10
Boron (ppm)	25–50	30–35	20–25	35–50	45–95	20–40	50–60

Nutrient	Kalanchoe	Petunia	Poinsettia	Primula	Rose	Snapdragon	Streptocarpus[1]	Vinca
Nitrogen (%)	2.5–5.0	2.8–5.8	4.0–6.0	2.5–3.3	3.0–5.0	4.0–5.3	2.0–3.5	4.9–5.4
Phosphorous (%)	0.2–0.5	0.5–1.2	0.2–1.0	0.4–0.8	0.2–0.3	0.2–0.6	0.1–0.7	0.4–0.6
Potassium (%)	2.0–4.8	3.5–5.5	1.5–5.0	2.1–4.2	1.8–3.0	2.2–4.1	4.8–5.5	2.9–3.6
Calcium (%)	1.1–4.5	0.6–4.8	0.4–2.0	0.6–1.0	1.0–1.9	0.5–1.4	1.2–1.9	1.4–1.6
Magnesium (%)	0.4–1.0	0.3–1.4	0.2–1.0	0.2–0.4	0.2–0.4	0.5–1.0	0.3–0.5	0.4–0.5
Iron (ppm)	75–200	40–700	100–300	75–155	50–150	70–135	90–260	95–150
Manganese (ppm)	60–250	90–185	45–300	50–80	30–900	60–185	130–300	165–300
Zinc (ppm)	25–80	30–90	25–150	40–45	15–50	30–55	85–130	40–45
Copper (ppm)	5–20	5–45	5–15	5–10	5–25	5–15	15–20	5–10
Boron (ppm)	30–60	20–50	20–200	30–35	20–60	15–40	55–65	25–40

[1] Numbers from *Guide Values for Nutrient Element Contents of Vegetables and Flowers under Glass*, Glasshouse Crops Research Stations, Aalsmeer and Naaldwijk, 1987. (Assembled and updated by R.E. Widmer, University of Minnesota, June 1985. Expanded and updated by J.M. Dole and H.F. Wilkins, University of Minnesota, October 1988, Department of Horticultural Science and Landscape Architecture.)

Symptoms of Nutrient Deficiency

(Source: *Diagnosing Nutrient Disorders in Greenhouse Crops*, C. Rosen and J. Erwin, University of Minnesota).

Nutritional Interactions

Nutritional problems in greenhouse crops can be common because of the high rate of growth, the different specific requirements of each crop, the limited rooting volume of the container and the limited nutrient reserve of the medium in which the crop is being grown. Both the amount of nutrients being supplied and their balance play important roles in producing high-quality container crops. Changing the level of one nutrient in solution can affect the uptake or transport through the plant of another.

Although interactions between nutrients can be either positive or negative, it is usually the negative interactions that are most well documented.

Nutrient interactions become a factor in two situations:

- when the levels of two elements are near the deficiency range, and
- when one element is supplied in excessive amounts while another is at levels that are marginally sufficient.

The precise nature of the interaction depends on the nutrients involved and the plant species. It may be the result of precipitation reactions occurring in the soil solution or the result of competition during ion uptake, translocation or metabolic function (see Table 2–10, *Some Common Interactions between Nutrients*. In many cases, the mechanism for the interaction may not be completely understood. These antagonistic effects become important when nutrient levels are low.

TABLE 2–10. Some Common Interactions between Nutrients

If excessive in media or tissue:	May cause deficiency of:
Ammonium	Calcium
Nitrate	Potassium
Phosphorus	Iron, zinc, copper
Potassium	Magnesium, calcium
Calcium	Magnesium, boron
Magnesium	Potassium, calcium
Manganese	Iron
Iron	Manganese
Zinc	Manganese, iron
Copper	Manganese, iron, zinc

Consider nutrient interactions and proper balance in relation to proper supply. Nutrient supply is important because optimal nutrient ratios in the solution or the plant tissue can be achieved even when both elements are in the deficient or toxic range.

Diagnosing Nutrient Disorders

With nutrient disorders, remember that once visual symptoms are present, marketability of the plants may have already been reduced. Follow rigorous soil-testing programs to detect potential problems before they result in crop losses.

In most cases, symptoms of nutritional disorders occur in defined patterns and are specific for each nutrient. Elements that are mobile within the plant generally induce deficiencies on the older (lower) leaves first, while immobile elements induce deficiencies on the younger (upper) leaves. In some cases, pesticide toxicity or disease symptoms may resemble nutrient deficiencies or toxicities.

In addition, symptoms of nutritional disorders are often species or cultivar dependent. Use soil and tissue analysis to help confirm whether the symptoms are nutritional.

The following symptoms of nutrient deficiency/toxicity (for nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, magnesium and sulphur) generally affect lower leaves first and may progress to younger leaves as the problem becomes more severe.

Nitrogen

Deficiency

- Leaves turn pale green to yellow.
- Oldest leaves are affected first, but in severe cases, the whole plant may be yellow. Growth is usually stunted. Symptoms very similar to sulphur deficiency.

Excess Ammonium

- Plant growth is restricted.
- Leaves yellow.
- Marginal necrosis occurs.
- The growing point dies.
- High ammonium (generally during the winter months) will interfere with uptake/translocation of potassium, magnesium and calcium, thereby inducing calcium deficiency and reduced potassium and magnesium content of plant tissue.

Excess Nitrate

- Most plants tolerate high nitrate levels without any symptoms.
- Nitrate enhances phosphorus and potassium uptake.
- Excessive nitrate will stimulate vegetative growth and may delay flowering.

Phosphorus

Deficiency

- Leaves appear reddish-purple; lower leaves yellowish.
- Oldest leaves are affected first; necrosis and leaf drop if severe.
- Plant growth is stunted.
- Phosphorus deficiency may be induced under high pH (>7.4) or low pH (<5.0) conditions in soilless media.

Excess

- Phosphorus excess may induce micro-nutrient deficiency symptoms by inhibiting iron, zinc and copper uptake/translocation, possibly due to precipitation of phosphates.

Potassium

Deficiency

- Leaves develop grey or tan areas near the margins.
- Oldest leaves are affected first with characteristic scorching of the leaf tips and around the margins.
- In some plants, spotting or chlorosis between the veins may occur.
- Growth may be bushy.

Excess

- Excess potassium may cause salt burn at very high rates.
- If magnesium levels are marginal, excessive potassium will induce magnesium deficiency.

Magnesium

Deficiency

- Older leaves turn yellow between the veins (interveinal chlorosis).
- In severe cases, younger leaves may be affected and older leaves may develop necrotic spots and then drop off.
- Deficiency can be induced by high potassium levels.

Excess

- Plants can tolerate high levels of magnesium without adverse effects.
- High levels of magnesium can cause deficiencies of potassium and calcium in plant tissue.

Sulphur

Deficiency

- There is a general yellowing of the plant; leaf veins are often yellow.
- Symptoms are similar to nitrogen deficiency.

Excess

- Plants can tolerate high levels of sulphur; however, uptake of molybdenum will be reduced.

The following symptoms of nutrient deficiency/toxicity (for calcium, boron, copper, iron, manganese, molybdenum and zinc) generally affect younger or upper leaves first.

Calcium

Deficiency

- Growing points of plants may die.
- Youngest leaves are affected first.
- Root tips die, and root growth is slow.
- In some plants, leaf edges or tips are yellow or scorched (often termed leaf-edge or leaf-tip burn).
- Deficiency can be induced by high levels of ammonium and excessively wet or dry conditions.

Excess

- Plants can tolerate high levels of calcium without adverse effects.
- High levels of calcium can cause lower levels of potassium and magnesium in plant tissue.

Boron

Deficiency

- Boron deficiency usually occurs on younger plant tissue.
- Young leaves are often dark green, thick and brittle.
- Growing points die, and leaves appear small and distorted, with multiple shoot development; "witch's broom" on rose is common.

Excess

- Excess boron can be highly toxic to some plants.
- Toxicity usually occurs on the oldest leaves as a scorching of the margins.

Copper

Deficiency

- Yellowing or dieback of youngest leaves occurs.
- Sometimes yellowing between the veins appears.
- There is a distortion of the leaves with stunted, strap-like growth.
- High levels of phosphorus may induce copper deficiency.

Excess

- Excess copper may induce iron deficiency and cause stunted root systems.

Iron

Deficiency

- There may be yellowing between the veins on the youngest leaves, although veins remain green (interveinal chlorosis); may turn totally yellow to white with necrosis.
- High levels of phosphorus may induce iron deficiency.
- High pH conditions as well as low soil temperatures will cause iron deficiency.

Excess

- Plants can tolerate high levels of iron without adverse effects.
- Chlorotic spots eventually become reddish-brown with eventual collapse of affected tissue.
- High levels may induce magnesium deficiency in some plants.

Manganese

Deficiency

- Manganese deficiency appears similar to iron deficiency.
- Yellowing between the veins of the youngest leaves occurs; usually leaves do not turn white and necrotic.
- Usually only the main veins remain green, causing a fishbone-like appearance.
- Manganese deficiency occurs under high pH conditions and/or low soil temperatures.

Excess

- Reddish-brown to black spots appear on lower leaves between veins; leaves yellow.
- Excess manganese occurs under low-pH conditions.

Molybdenum

Deficiency

- Young leaves appear pale, distorted and narrow; whiptail appearance.
- Young mature leaves may show interveinal chlorosis and in-rolling of leaf margins; ultimately yellowing tissue becomes necrotic.
- In some plants, leaf margins may be scorched.
- Molybdenum deficiency occurs most frequently under low-pH conditions.
- Phosphorus and magnesium will enhance uptake, while high sulphur will decrease uptake.

Excess

- Plants can tolerate high levels of molybdenum without adverse effects.

Zinc

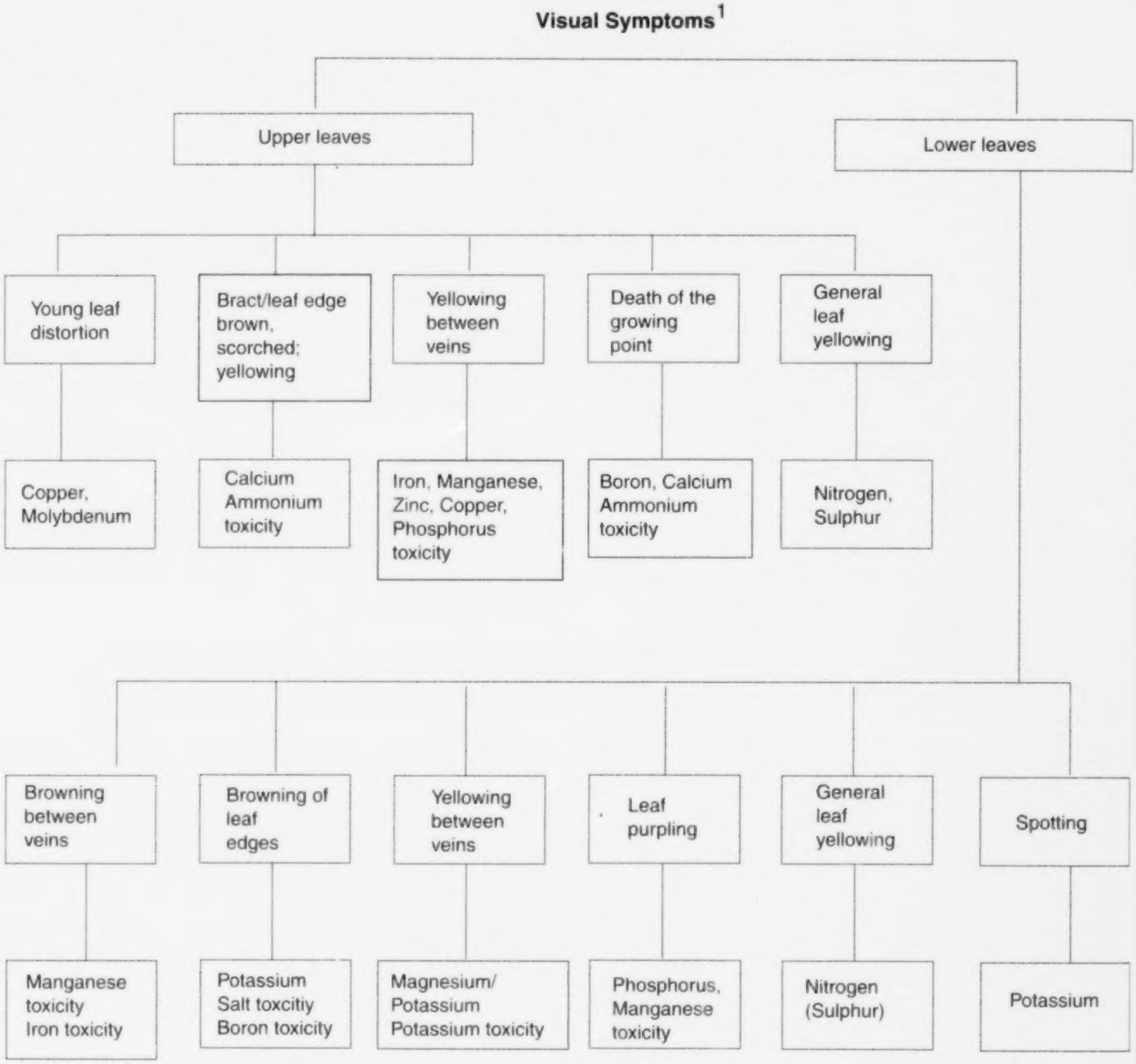
Deficiency

- Younger leaves are affected first and may show signs of yellowing between the veins.
- Other symptoms may include short internodes and rosetting of leaves.
- High levels of phosphorous may induce zinc deficiency.
- Zinc deficiency occurs under high-pH conditions.

Excess

- Excess zinc may depress uptake of phosphorus and iron in some plants.
- Excess zinc occurs under low-pH conditions.
- The result is reduced root growth and leaf expansion.

FIGURE 2–1. Key to Determining Nutrient Disorders in Greenhouse Crops


Visual Symptoms[1]
Upper leaves
Lower leaves
Young leaf distortion
Bract/leaf edge brown, scorched; yellowing
Yellowing between veins
Death of the growing point
General leaf yellowing
Copper, Molybdenum
Calcium Ammonium toxicity
Iron, Manganese, Zinc, Copper, Phosphorus toxicity
Boron, Calcium Ammonium toxicity
Nitrogen, Sulphur
Browning between veins
Browning of leaf edges
Yellowing between veins
Leaf purpling
General leaf yellowing
Spotting
Manganese toxicity Iron toxicity
Potassium Salt toxcitiy Boron toxicity
Magnesium/ Potassium Potassium toxicity
Phosphorus, Manganese toxicity
Nitrogen (Sulphur)
Potassium

[1] Symptoms refer to deficiency unless otherwise stated.

3. Integrated Pest Management

This chapter discusses the tools of integrated pest management (IPM). IPM is a pest control philosophy that uses all available control strategies to maintain pest populations of insects, mites or disease organisms below an economic injury level. It does not advocate a continuous pesticide spray program to eradicate pests, but promotes the integration of cultural, physical, biological and chemical control strategies.

The routine spraying of pesticides for insurance purposes is no longer likely to achieve effective control. In recent years, this practice has led to a number of problems, including pest resistance, environmental damage, and personal health and safety concerns.

Resistance

With fewer pesticides being developed and registered, and more pesticides becoming ineffective due to resistance, growers must use the remaining effective pesticides more efficiently. To reduce the development of resistance, combine pesticide use with other control strategies.

Environmental Damage

Concerns over environmental pollution and groundwater contamination make it important to reduce use of pesticides and their misapplication, and to focus on pesticides with a more environmentally friendly profile.

Personal Health and Safety

Potential exposure of applicators and workers to pesticides and pesticide residues in greenhouses means critically evaluating pesticide use in terms of safety during application and frequency of use.

Monitoring

Careful monitoring provides reliable information to guide an integrated pest management program. The most common greenhouse-monitoring technique is the use of yellow sticky traps (cards or tape) to collect many species of flying insects. These are especially effective for whitefly, thrips, leaf miner, fungus gnats, shoreflies and winged aphids. Note that blue sticky traps have proven to be especially attractive to western flower thrips. However, if a variety of pests is present, yellow traps are a better choice.

When using sticky cards, provide adequate coverage. Use one card every 100–200 m^2 and change the traps regularly. In spring and summer, this usually means changing the cards every week when recording the pest numbers. In winter, when pest numbers are lower, it may be possible to change sticky cards less frequently.

Another important, and often overlooked, monitoring technique is crop inspection. It is essential for monitoring the presence of plant diseases, mites, wingless aphids or the immature stages of whitefly and leaf miner. Adopt a regular sampling pattern that provides good coverage of the whole greenhouse, including entry points and areas of concern. Again, keep weekly records.

To monitor for disease, inspect foliage weekly and roots (or, for vegetable crops, the bases of the plants) every two weeks. Check EC and pH biweekly for each crop grown. Detecting diseases and non-flying pests (such as aphids or mites) early makes control easier and may mean containing a problem with only a spot spray.

For successful monitoring, do it on a regular basis. Record information so growers can use it in the future. Include:

- date
- pest identification
- location in the greenhouse
- number of insects trapped
- stage of development (e.g., adults, pupae)
- diseases present or suspected
- crop species and cultivar
- control action (pesticide used, rate, area treated, time taken, etc.).

Cultural Controls

Sanitation

Sanitation is the first step in any pest control program. If a source of infection or infestation is constantly present due to poor hygiene, pest control programs will be expensive and frustrating. Carry out good sanitation practices in the greenhouse and adjoining structures (boiler rooms, etc.), in the immediate vicinity of the greenhouse and during every stage of crop production.

Proper greenhouse sanitation is a continual, year-round process. **Cleanliness on its own may not control pest problems, but it is a basic component of any control program and an essential adjunct to other pest management strategies.** It is important to:

- Remove dead and dying leaves and flowers. In roses, removal of and disposal away from the greenhouse of all flowers (including those that will not be sold) can play a significant role in control of thrips.
- Remove crop residues and deposit them well away and downwind from the greenhouse.
- Preferably burn residues as permitted by the local municipality or, alternatively, contain and dispose of them.
- Remove all weeds from inside and immediately outside the greenhouse.
- Keep walks and the surfaces of beds clean.
- Check carefully for pest infestations when bringing new stock into the greenhouse.
- Avoid overwintering garden or house plants in the greenhouse, otherwise pests will be maintained for an early invasion of the next crop.
- Maintain good drainage to eliminate puddles and wet surfaces, as these provide ideal breeding sites for fungus gnats and shoreflies and are a possible source of infection for waterborne diseases.

If the greenhouse is empty between crops (especially likely with greenhouse vegetables, but also possible in some ornamental greenhouses), heat treatment can be an effective way to remove pest infestations. If temperatures are maintained at >40°C and humidity at <50% for 3–4 days, insect and mite pests will be effectively controlled. This is particularly suitable during the warmer months of the year when these temperatures can be achieved by just closing the vents. **Note: At higher temperatures, plastic fittings may warp.**

- To prevent disease organisms from carrying over on empty structures, heating pipes, walks, benches or equipment, spray with one of these options:
  - A 0.5%–1% final solution of sodium hypochlorite bleach. Mix 1 part common household bleach with 9 parts water.
  - Floralife D.C.D., a quaternary ammonium compound with fungicidal and bactericidal activity.
  - Virkon, a disinfectant with fungicidal, bactericidal and virucidal activity.
  - Chemprocide, a quaternary ammonium compound with fungicidal and bactericidal activity.

Environmental Control

Environmental factors such as light, temperature, humidity, water and nutrients affect not only the plant but also the pests and diseases that afflict them. The use of environmental controls to manage pests is complex because of the simultaneous effects on crop production. Each case is different; look at each carefully. For example, humidity can play an important role in pest and disease development.

- Spider mites prefer hot, dry conditions. Increasing humidity by overhead misting can help to retard the development of this pest.
- During the winter months, thrips are not particularly mobile. This is probably due to low light levels rather than to low temperatures, and it can have implications for monitoring programs. At these times of the year thrips may not be caught by yellow sticky cards, even when thrips are present and actively feeding in the crop.
- Air moisture affects the development of diseases such as powdery mildew and *Botrytis*. This makes these problems susceptible to improvement by environmental controls (see Chapter 7, *Major Greenhouse Diseases*, page 67).

Resistant Cultivars

Many plant species display varietal differences in their susceptibility to insect and disease attack. Genetic manipulation of crops can provide growers with cultivars resistant to one or more insects or diseases. For example, greenhouse tomato growers seldom experience problems with *Fusarium* Crown and Root Rot because resistant varieties have been developed. Powdery mildew–tolerant cucumber varieties are increasingly used by greenhouse growers. Although ornamental plant breeders have not taken great advantage of host plant resistance, it offers potential for future advancements in pest management.

In the meantime, growers with pest problems can improve their pest management program by looking closely at the varieties grown and at how these varieties are affected by pests. Use susceptible varieties as indicators for pests and diseases. Spot-spray the susceptible variety when pests or diseases occur to provide effective control and reduce the amount of pesticide applied. Although market demands determine the varieties grown, it may be possible to eliminate or reduce the amount of a susceptible variety and replace it with a more resistant one.

Soil Pasteurization Methods

Greenhouse media and field soils contain weed seeds, insects, bacteria and fungi that may be harmful to the plants being grown. This includes potting mixes and their components, unless guaranteed sterile or pasteurized by the manufacturer. Pasteurize soil and potting mixes to eliminate these harmful organisms. Ideally, this is accomplished without injuring beneficial soil organisms.

Steam

Steam is the most common heat source for pasteurization. There are different ways of handling steam, depending on the type of crop being grown.

- When pasteurizing soil for vegetable seedlings or potted plants, growers find it efficient to inject steam into the bottom of a wagon or old truck body.
- After cooling, move the pasteurized soil to the area in which it will be used.

Growers of cut flower or vegetable crops follow two techniques when steaming soil:

- If ground beds are drained with agricultural tile, it is very simple to inject steam into these tiles and pasteurize the soil on the sides and above them. The top of the tile should be 40 cm below the surface and the rows on 60 cm centres.
- If tiles are not installed, cover the bed with a tarpaulin. Inject steam directly under the tarpaulin through either a canvas hose or a perforated, flexible plastic field tile to ensure even distribution. Soil should be in fine tilth to allow rapid, uniform penetration of the steam, and free from clods and undecomposed crop remains.

When using rock wool, note that steaming time depends on the wetness of the rock wool and the steam temperature. Steaming at 90°C for 30 minutes should be adequate. Generally, the wetter the rock wool, the longer the steaming period. For this reason, the substrate should be as dry as possible before steaming. Rock wool stacked on pallets without polyethylene bags can be steam-sterilized in two hours. Rock wool wrapped in polyethylene requires five hours of steaming. Rock wool should not be stacked higher than 1.5 m. To stabilize the stacked slabs, place each row at right angles to the previous one. In addition, leave a 2.5 cm space between individual slabs to allow for better steam penetration.

Time-Temperature Relationships to Destroy Undesirable Organisms

The following chart gives the time/temperature relationships necessary to destroy undesirable organisms. It shows that most organisms of concern to growers can be eliminated under ideal conditions of 60°C for 30 minutes.

Weeds (most)	70°C–80°C for 15 min.
Insects and mites	60°C–71°C for 20 min.
Bacteria (most)	60°C for 10 min.
Fusarium	57°C for 30 min.
Botrytis	55°C for 15 min.
Nematodes	55°C for 30 min.
Rhizoctonia	52°C for 30 min.
Sclerotinia	50°C for 5 min.
Pythium	46°C for 40 min.

When temperatures rise above 82°C, beneficial soil organisms begin to be destroyed. If the soil is heated to too high a temperature for too long a time, it becomes sterile. It is then subject to a greater degree of infection than previously, as all beneficial organisms have been destroyed. There are many other undesirable effects of over-steaming, such as:

- excessive ammonia release
- manganese toxicity
- higher total salt levels
- destruction of organic matter.

Aerated Steam

Aerated steam is being used more widely today. In this system, steam mixes with air in a chamber. The mixture is used at 70°C to pasteurize soil while avoiding any of the hazards of over-steaming. Unless there are specific problems, a soil temperature of 70°C is adequate for most insect and disease problems.

Electric Soil Pasteurizers

Electric soil pasteurizers are useful when pasteurizing small volumes of soil and where no other method is available. **Note that these can overcook the soil very easily**. For the soil temperature between the finned heat sources to reach 82°C, the fins themselves must be at a higher temperature.

Chemical Fumigants

Chemical fumigants such as Basamid, methyl bromide, Telone, Vapam and Vorlex can be used for pasteurizing soil for potting or in greenhouse beds or benches. Each of these fumigants has a specific rate and activity against soil-borne insects, diseases, nematodes and weeds. **Note that some formulations may be less effective against certain types of pests — always read the manufacturer's label.** Protect crops in adjoining beds or benches from accidental exposure to escaped fumes.

Fumigants listed in Table 3–1, *Chemical Fumigants for Soil Treatments,* are effective as preplanting treatments for greenhouse soil beds. The amounts shown are for use on 100 m^2:

TABLE 3–1. Chemical Fumigants for Soil Treatments

Control of Nematodes Only	
Telone IIB	2.0 L
Telone C-17	2.0 L
Vorlex Plus	2.5 L
Control of Nematodes, Fungi, Insects and Some Bacteria	
Basamid (granular)	3.25–5 kg worked into a depth of 15–23 cm
Vapam (liquid)	10 L
Vorlex Plus (liquid)	6 L
Methyl bromide/Chloropicrin	Pressurized cans 98%/2%: 7.5–10 kg Injectable 68%/31.8%: 2.5–3.65 kg

Notes on Methyl Bromide

Methyl bromide must be applied by licensed applicators only! The bromide residue that lingers in the soil after using methyl bromide may reduce the germination and/or growth of salvia, dianthus, ageratum, alyssum, antirrhinum, aster, calendula, celosia, chrysanthemum, cleome, coleus, coreopsis, dahlia, digitalis, godetia, helichrysum, iberis, lobelia, matricaria, myosotis, nemesia, nierembergia, portulaca, salpiglossis, verbena, vinca, and viola.

Do not use methyl bromide prior to planting a lettuce crop or other leafy vegetables.

Weed Control Methods

Control of weeds inside and outside the greenhouse is an important part of any pest management program. Weeds can provide a refuge for insect pests and act as a reservoir for diseases. A 5-m strip of carefully maintained lawn around and between greenhouses will also decrease the danger of invasion by insects and diseases from outside. Fescue grasses have been shown to be one of the least preferred grasses of western flower thrips, information that may be useful for lawn plantings around greenhouses.

Herbicide application, cultivation and hand weeding are the most practical methods of controlling weeds in and around greenhouses. However, other methods may be useful to reduce the amount of labour required to keep weeds under control.

Steam

As mentioned above, steam used to pasteurize soil will kill weeds and most weed seeds if the soil temperature can be held at 70°C–80°C for 15 minutes. Weed seeds in the outer layer of cooler soil and weed seeds with hard seed coats may not be killed.

Soil Fumigation

Metam sodium (Vapam), dazomet (Basamid) and methyl isothiocyanate (Vorlex) are useful in treating seedbeds and potting soil. They break down in the soil to produce a gas that kills many weed seeds, nematodes and fungi that cause damping-off and other plant diseases.

Methyl bromide is also effective for weed control and general soil sterilizing. It comes as a liquid and forms a poisonous gas when released from the container. **Methyl**

bromide must be used by licensed applicators only, under a gasproof cover, usually plastic.

Herbicides

OMAF Publication 75, *Guide to Weed Control*, contains information on herbicides registered for use in Ontario. Treatments listed in the publication are subject to extensive field trials and observation on farms. Herbicides may be particularly useful for weed control outside, but no herbicides are registered for use inside the greenhouse.

There is potential for crop damage if any herbicide is used incorrectly. Always turn fans off so as not to draw herbicides into the greenhouse. OMAF Resource Centres and Government Information Centres have copies of Publication 75, *Guide to Weed Control*. Carefully follow the instructions regarding chemicals, safety precautions, calibration, and care and use of sprayers.

Where unwanted herbicide residues remain in soil, applying activated charcoal can reduce the problem. The rate varies depending on the type of chemical contaminant and its concentration. A usual range is 0.5–1.5 kg/100 m^2.

Physical Control

Screening

In warmer climates where pests occur outside all year, screening has become an established part of IPM programs. While not as common in temperate areas, screening is becoming more accepted and its value more apparent.

Screening greatly reduces the entrance of common greenhouse pests such as thrips, aphids and whiteflies, but also some less common pests such as tarnished plant bugs and European corn borers, which can become major pest problems when pesticide use is reduced (e.g., in biological control programs). Benefits of using insect screening have been demonstrated in Israel and California. In Ontario, growers who have installed screens have reported that pest levels and pesticide use are reduced, and effectiveness of pest control (especially biological control) measures improved.

The most important consideration for a grower wishing to screen a greenhouse is to determine which pests need to be excluded. The size of the pest determines the mesh size of the screen that is needed for that purpose. Large mesh sizes of the type normally found in household screens are inadequate for excluding most major greenhouse pests; however, they can be useful in keeping out occasional larger pests such as tarnished plant bugs and lepidopteran (moth) pests. For smaller insects such as thrips, screens must be of a very fine mesh for total exclusion. In cases with multiple pests of concern, mesh size should exclude the smallest of these pests.

Reduction of air flow is a major concern of growers. It can lead to overheating of the greenhouse, and stress on the fans (in the case of fan-ventilated greenhouses), which must work harder to pull the same amount of air through the partially blocked vent. Reduced ventilation is a valid concern, but it can be addressed by increasing the surface area of the vent. In many situations this has been done successfully by building a screened framework around the vent opening. The goal is to ensure that the final surface area of the vents provides sufficient air exchange to allow adequate cooling of the greenhouse. There are several methods available for determining the increase in surface area of the vents required for any given greenhouse, but factors such as screen mesh size, fan capacity and static pressure drop (the difference in air pressure between inside and outside the greenhouse when the fans are running) are important. Although there are software programs available to assist with these calculations, they can be complicated and are generally best left to screening manufacturers.

The small mesh size means that the screens are very prone to blockage with dust and other deposits, especially in the summer. Such blockage will reduce air flow through the screens and may contribute to excessively high temperature conditions. Therefore, clean the screens regularly. It is also important to incorporate easy access in the design of the screens to facilitate its cleaning. Wash screens from the inside with a high-pressure hose. **Do not do this when the fans are operating, because the water will block the pore openings and completely stop air flow, leading to overheating of the greenhouse.**

The effectiveness of the screens depends on their ability to exclude flying insects. Tears or holes will permit pest entry; repair these as soon as possible. Small tears can be simply repaired by gluing a piece of screening over the hole.

The cost of screening will depend on several factors: the final screening design, the increase in surface area needed to maintain adequate ventilation, the cost of the screening material, whether roof vents or side vents are to be screened, frequency of replacement, frequency of cleaning, etc. The biggest variable is the difference in cost between installing screens in a force-ventilated, side-vented greenhouse, and a passively vented greenhouse with roof vents. Nevertheless, reports from growers who have installed screens over side vents in force-ventilated greenhouses suggest a rapid payback from reduced pesticide costs and improved pest management.

For more information, see OMAF Factsheet 00-021, *Screening Greenhouses for Insect Exclusion.*

Other Physical Controls

Yellow sticky tape can provide useful additional control of flying insect pests. It works on the same principle as the sticky cards used for monitoring. String tape along beds or benches, or hang it vertically within the crop to provide significant supplementary control in conjunction with other control methods.

Biological Control

Biological control is the use of living organisms such as insects, mites, nematodes, fungi and bacteria to control pests such as insects, mites and diseases. Biological control requires very different approaches for vegetables and floriculture. While widespread in greenhouse vegetable crops, biological control has been used only recently in flower crops.

Biological control involves more than just the release of parasites or predators. To be successful, plan at least several months in advance. Follow these steps when considering the use of biological control:

1. Develop a list of resources to help with the program (this may include producers/ suppliers of biocontrol agents, other growers, extension specialists, researchers or consultants). Attend courses, seminars and workshops; read magazines and newsletters; and use the Internet to find out as much as possible about biocontrol. Determine which pests to control and which are the most appropriate natural enemies to use.

2. Start in a small and isolated part of the greenhouse if possible to focus more closely on the area being used and to become more comfortable with the use of biological control without worrying that the entire crop is dependent on this first use of biological control being successful. In subsequent years, expand the use of natural enemies to include other areas of the operation.

3. If possible, screen the area to be used. Movement into the greenhouse of pests from outside is unpredictable from year to year but can swamp a biocontrol program and make it difficult for the natural enemies to maintain control. With screening, growers need only be concerned about the pests inside the greenhouse. (See *Screening*, page 39.)

4. Ensure that all staff are aware of the biological control program and why it is being used. They are in the greenhouse every day performing routine crop management tasks and if trained can recognize problems at a very early stage.

5. Many registered pesticides can have long-term (2–3 months) residual impact against natural enemies. Check through pesticide spray records over the previous several months. If such pesticides have been used, wait the appropriate length of time before starting. Use products with less residual impact to control pests and diseases during this period. Effects of many pesticides are listed in Table 3–3, *Reported Effects of Registered Fungicides on Biological Control Agents*, page 42 and Table 3–4, *Reported Effects of Registered Insecticides/ Miticides on Biological Control Agents*, page 43, or are available from biocontrol suppliers.

6. Work with the supplier to learn how to check incoming biocontrol agents to determine if they are alive and well. The quality of natural enemies produced by the major insectaries is excellent, but occasionally problems can arise in shipping. Suppliers need to know about any problems in quality so the causes can be identified and corrected.

7. Follow instructions in storing and releasing the natural enemies. Many can be stored for only a short period of time under fairly specific conditions.

8. Monitor the populations of natural enemies and the progress of the biocontrol program. This is as important as monitoring the pest populations.
   - Use sticky cards to monitor flying insects, especially the parasitic wasps. Be aware however, that some natural enemies (e.g., *Eretmocerus*) are highly attracted to yellow, and too many sticky cards may be detrimental to the program.
   - Check the impact of the natural enemy on the pest; e.g., parasitism of whitefly by *Encarsia* and aphids by *Aphidius* parasitic wasps is easily checked.

- Visually inspect the crop for natural enemies such as predatory mites, which don't fly. Inspect the crop especially in areas of highest pest numbers.
- Regularly monitor pests to determine if populations are decreasing.

9. Use compatible pesticides if necessary. Such pesticides should be identified prior to starting a program so they may be used if necessary. See tables below or refer to lists available from suppliers.
10. Be patient. It takes some experience to understand a system of biocontrol. Ask others who have experience if the program is not progressing as expected.

Commercially produced biocontrol agents are available for all the major greenhouse insect and mite pests, but not yet for diseases. For more details about the implementation of biological control or about supplies of parasites/predators, consult an OMAF greenhouse pest management specialist, crop specialist or an industry consultant.

Chemical Control

While pesticides will remain an important component of any greenhouse pest management program, growers must carefully monitor their use. For the reasons noted above, make the best possible use of those that are available.

Resistance

Pests can develop resistance to any pesticide used incorrectly or too often. Although there are benefits from new product registrations, do not simply wait for the latest advance in pesticide chemistry. The long-term problems presented by pesticide resistance far outweigh the short-term gains of a new product if it is used incorrectly.

Resistance is the evolutionary adaptation of a population to survive a pesticide dose that is lethal to most of its individuals. It is an inherited trait, which is passed onto future generations. While resistance does not develop within an individual during its lifetime, it usually exists in a population at very low frequencies (too low to be measured or noticeable). The frequency of resistance increases when pesticide exposure kills susceptible individuals while allowing successively greater numbers of resistant individuals to survive.

TABLE 3–2. Biocontrol Agents for Principal Greenhouse Pests

Pest	Biocontrol Agent
Whitefly (*Trialeurodes vaporariorum* **or** *Bemisia argentifolii*)	*Encarsia formosa* [1] *Eretmocerus eremicus* [1] *Delphastus pusillus* [1] *Dicyphus hesperus* [2]
Spider mite (*Tetranychus urticae*)	*Phytoseiulus persimilis* [2] *Amblyseius fallacis*[2] *Amblyseius californicus*[2] *Feltiella acarisuga* [2] *Stethorus punctillum*[2]
Western flower thrips (*Frankliniella occidentalis*)	*Amblyseius* spp. [2] *Orius* spp. [2] *Hypoaspis* sp. [2] *Atheta coriaria*[2] Nematodes – *Steinernema feltiae*
Aphids: Various species, especially green peach aphid (*Myzus persicae*) or melon aphid (*Aphis gossypii*)	*Aphidius* spp. [1] *Aphidoletes aphidimyza* [2] Ladybeetles (*Harmonia* and *Hippodamia*)[2] Lacewings [2]
Fungus gnat (*Bradysia* and *Corynoptera* spp.)	*Hypoaspi* [2] Nematodes — *Steinernema* sp. *Atheta coriaria*[2]
Leafminer (*Liriomyza trifolii*)	*Diglyphus* sp.[1] *Dacnusa* sp. [1]

[1] Parasite: Usually requires only one host for completion of development, often killing it by living on or in its body.

[2] Predator: Feeds on its prey (pest) by catching it, but otherwise lives independently of it. It must consume more than one individual to reach maturity.

Use caution when using pesticides with biocontrols, since most pesticides are harmful to natural enemies. Application of just one harmful pesticide can prevent any further use of biocontrol agents for an extended period of time.

Resistance management programs aim to reduce the pressure applied to pest populations by pesticides. Use diverse control methods to reduce the need for pesticides. There are several ways to do this, mirroring the approach of IPM programs. Growers using IPM programs, good monitoring techniques, and cultural, biological, and physical controls are practising resistance management at the same time.

TABLE 3–3. Reported Effects of Registered Fungicides on Biological Control Agents[1, 2, 3]

Fungicides	*Encarsia formosa* and *Aphidius*	*Phytoseiulus persimilis*	*Amblyseius cucumeris* and *Hypoaspis*	*Aphidoletes aphidimyza*	*Orius* spp.
Aliette	—	S	S	I	—
Botran	S	S	S	S	S
Captan/Maestro	S	S	S	S	S
Daconil	S	S	I	S	S
Decree	—	—	—	—	—
Folpet	S	S	S	—	S
Meltatox	S	S	—	—	—
Mycostop	S	S	S	S	S
Nova	S	S	S	—	S
Phyton 27	S	S	S	S	S
Quintozene	—	—	—	—	—
Rootshield	S	S	S	S	S
Rovral	S	S	S	S	S
Senator	S	H (14–21)	H (14–21)	S	S
Subdue	I	I	I	S	—
Truban	S	S	S	S	—

[1] Numbers in parentheses refer to residual toxicity to biological agent, in days. S = Safe; H = Harmful; I = Intermediate; "—" means no data is available, **so presume toxic unless otherwise proven**

[2] This table serves only as a guide to possible effects of pesticides. **Variations in toxicity may occur under varying conditions.**

[3] This table was compiled from information produced by *Applied Bionomics Ltd.* and *Koppert Biological Systems*. Where discrepancies existed in the available information, it provides a range of residual toxicities **or** the more conservative figure.

Note that when pesticides are used in an IPM program, the rate at which resistance develops increases if one class of pesticides (e.g., organophosphorus, synthetic pyrethoid, carbamate) is used for a prolonged period. To slow the rate of resistance development, rotate pesticide classes every few weeks or for a period equal to the generation time of the pest being controlled (see Chapter 8, *Pesticide Toxicity and Activity*, page 79 for pesticide classes).

Everyone in the industry must use pesticides responsibly so that new products do not lose their effectiveness within a year or two of registration.

Pesticide Application Effectiveness

The most common cause of control failure is **not** resistance. Several other factors determine the effectiveness of a particular pesticide application:

- Ensure that pesticide rates are calculated and measured accurately.
- Good coverage is needed for good pest control. Simple changes such as walking more slowly through the crop when applying pesticides, or walking every aisle instead of every other one, significantly improve performance.
- Maintain spray equipment in good condition, changing spray nozzles on a regular basis. Older nozzles become worn, which can alter spray pattern and droplet size.
- Consider using different application technologies. High-volume, low-volume and electrostatic-spray application all have their place in the greenhouse for appropriate purposes.
- Perhaps the biggest improvement in pesticide application comes from timing and targeting sprays more effectively. To do this, implement an IPM program that provides the information required to decide when where and why a pesticide application is needed. Spray can then be applied where most needed (e.g., as spot sprays), when they will provide optimal control and directly at the appropriate pest at the correct life stage
- Pesticide effectiveness will vary (often considerably) from greenhouse to greenhouse, depending on factor such as the usage history of a particular product, the method of application, the time of application and th water quality. Adjust water pH to 5.5–6.0; at pH>7, the pesticide may degrade rapidly.

TABLE 3–4. Reported Effects of Registered Insecticides/Miticides on Biological Control Agents[1, 2, 3]

Insecticides	*Encarsia formosa* and *Aphidius*	*Phytoseiulus persimilis*	*Amblyseius cucumeris* and *Hypoaspis*	*Aphidoletes aphidimyza*	*Orius* spp.
Citation	S	S	S	S	S
Confirm	—	I	—	—	—
DDVP/Sanex Vapo	H(7)	H(3)	H(3)	H(3)	H(7)
Decis	H(56–84)	H(56–84)	H(56–84)	H(56–84)	H(56–84)
Dibrom	H(7)	H(3)	H(3)	H(7)	H(3)
Dimilin	S	S	S	S	H
Dipel	H(3)	S	S	I	S
Dyno-Mite	H(3—4)	I	H (0)	—	—
Endeavor	I(3-4)	I	S	—	S
Enstar II	I	S	S	—	—
Intercept	S	S	S	S	H(28–42)
Ins. Soap	H(0)	H(0)	H(0)	H(0)	H(0)
Kelthane	H(14)	H(14)	H(30)	H(4)	I
Malathion	H(56–84)	H(7–14)	H(56–84)	H(70)	H
Nicotine (F)	I(3)	I	H(1)	H(1)	I
Oil (Refined mineral)	H(0)	H(0)	H(0)	H(0)	H
Orthene	H(56–84)	H(21–28)	H(56–84)	H(56–84)	H
Pounce	H(56–84)	H(56–84)	H(56–84)	H(56–84)	H(56–84)
Pirliss	I(3–4)	I(3–4)	I(3–4)	H(7)	S
Thiodan	H(56–84)	H(4–14)	H(42–70)	H(56–84)	H
Trumpet	H(21)	H(21)	H(21)	H(21)	H
Vectobac	S	S	S	S	S

[1] Numbers in parentheses refer to residual toxicity to biological agent, in days. S = Safe; H = Harmful; I = Intermediate; "—" means no data is available, **so presume toxic unless otherwise proven**.

[2] This table serves only as a guide to possible effects of pesticides. **Variations in toxicity may occur under varying conditions**.

[3] This table was compiled from information produced by *Applied Bionomics Ltd.* and *Koppert Biological Systems*. Where discrepancies existed in the available information, it provides a range of residual toxicities **or** the more conservative figure.

Soil Drenches

Although soil drenches should not replace a thorough greenhouse pasteurization program, they are useful for preventing recontamination or eliminating pathogens in the soil or the basal parts of the plant. Use a root inspection-monitoring program as the first line of defence against root diseases and soil-dwelling insects such as fungus gnats.

Some drenches are taken up from the soil by plant roots. In this case, the drenches are systemic, and the whole plant is effectively treated against pests. Generally, apply 12 L of drench per m^2 of bench area or 150–180 mL of drench per 15-cm pot. Follow the manufacturer's directions carefully.

Pesticide Compatibility

- Pesticides recommended in this publication are for individual application to a crop.
- Before mixing pesticides, read the product labels carefully for compatibility statements or contact the supplier.
- Avoid mixing EC formulations.
- Herbicides should never be mixed with fungicides and insecticides; apply with spray equipment reserved for herbicide use only.

4. Major Insect and Mite Pests

Thrips

Description and Life History

Thrips are tiny, slender, agile insects about 1.5–2 mm in length when fully developed. Adults vary in colour from dark brown or black through to yellow or straw-brown. Immatures are usually white or yellow with red eyes. Several thrips species, including eastern flower thrips, onion thrips, and western flower thrips (WFT), are found in the greenhouse.

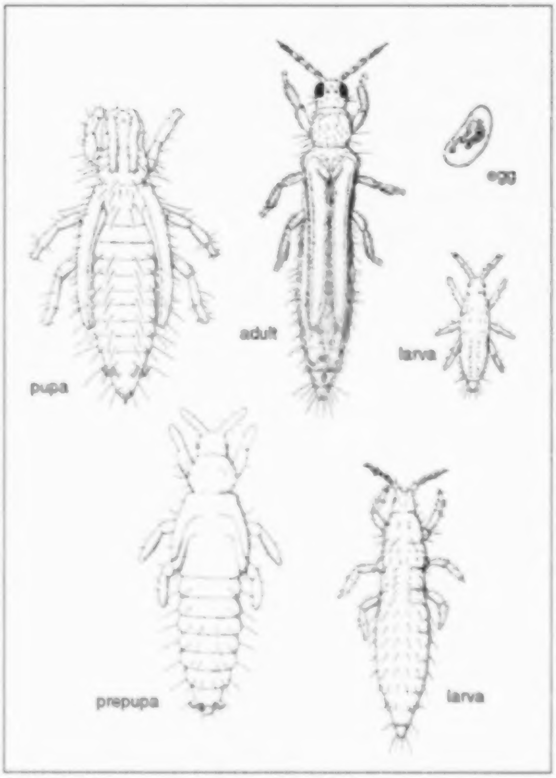
All thrips have a similar life cycle. The adult female lays tiny white eggs inside the leaf tissue. The eggs hatch in 5–7 days, and the white larvae emerge to feed on the leaves and petals. They pass through two larval stages, a prepupal stage and a pupal stage (on the soil or plant) before becoming adults. Adults can live up to 7 weeks. A new generation may occur every 20–35 days, depending on the temperature.

Damage

- Piercing/sucking mouthparts cause white streaked areas on leaves or translucent spots on flower petals. Feeding is characterized by tiny, black, fecal deposits on leaf surfaces. Adult females can also damage fruit quality (e.g., tomato) by laying eggs in the fruit. Small whitish "ghost-spots" appear where eggs are laid, which cause uneven fruit ripening.

- Thrips also rapidly develop pesticide resistance. They can carry impatiens necrotic spot virus/tomato spotted wilt virus (INSV/TSWV), which can devastate many common greenhouse crops. Proper diagnosis is essential, as these viruses have a wide host range and produce a wide variety of symptoms. Control of INSV/TSWV is difficult, involving thrips population management, removal of infected plants and good weed control inside and outside the greenhouse. Use indicator plants such as petunia or fava bean for early detection of INSV/TSWV.

FIGURE 4–1. Western Flower Thrips



Control Strategies

- Employ a regular monitoring program using yellow or blue (both very attractive colours to WFT) sticky cards and regular crop inspection.

- All stages of the thrips (except eggs) can be detected by tapping buds or flowers over a sheet of white paper and checking the thrips that fall.

Biological Control

- A number of biological control agents are available for thrips control: the predatory mites *Amblyseius cucumeris*, *Amblyseius degenerans* and *Hypoaspis*; the predatory bug *Orius insidiosus*; and the predatory rove beetle *Atheta coriaria*.

- Gain the best control by using more than one in combination. Introduce them when pest levels are low, using high enough introduction rates to achieve success.

Amblyseius cucumeris
This buff-coloured predator feeds mainly on the first nymphal stage of thrips.

- *Amblyseius cucumeris* is usually shipped to growers in a mixture that includes bran and bran mites. The bran provides food for the bran mites, which are themselves food for the predatory mites. The bran/mite mixture is available in small sachets or in containers from which the mixture is sprinkled directly on to the crop. The sachets serve as small rearing units from which predatory mites emerge over several weeks.

- Always examine the bran mixture prior to use. It should not be mouldy or smell of ammonia, and live predatory and bran mites should be visible.

- Healthy predatory mites move rapidly, whereas bran mites move more slowly. Hang sachets in sheltered positions to minimize dehydration of the bag contents. Rates of application of this predator vary with crop and level of thrips infestation. Contact the biological control supplier, consultant or OMAF IPM specialist for suggested rates.

Amblyseius degenerans
This predator differs from *A. cucumeris* in appearance and in being able to tolerate less humid conditions.

- It is dark, very agile and reproduces very well on pollen.

- It can be reared on castor bean plants, which can be release points for the predator within the greenhouse.

- It performs best in situations where it has a pollen source (e.g., greenhouse pepper) to encourage establishment. Because of this, it is unlikely to be the best option for most floricultural crops.

Hypoaspis
This soil-dwelling mite provides additional thrips control by feeding on pupae in the crop media. For more details, see *Fungus Gnats*, page 50.

Orius insidiosus
Orius insidiosus, the minute pirate bug, is a winged predator that consumes all mobile stages of thrips. Adults are black with white and cream markings on the wings. The youngest nymphs are yellow, and the oldest are a dark mahogany brown.

- *Orius* also feeds on pollen, spider mites, aphids, whiteflies, moth eggs, and young caterpillars. However, its preferred food source is thrips.

- Pirate bugs are sensitive to day length. Do not release them in greenhouses before mid-March unless at least 13 hours of light is available (e.g., supplemental lighting is used).

Atheta coriaria
This soil-dwelling beetle was originally developed for control of fungus gnats and shoreflies, but also feeds on thrips pupae in the soil. For more information see *Fungus Gnats*, page 50.

Chemical Control

Chemical control of WFT can be difficult. They tolerate most pesticides and feed deep within the flower head or on developing leaves. This makes them a difficult target for insecticides, so thorough coverage is essential. General recommendations regarding pesticide use for thrips control are as follows:

- At the action threshold (when thrips population levels dictate spraying to prevent economically damaging numbers from appearing), spray 4–5 days apart for three consecutive applications.

- Rotate chemical classes and use a single chemical class only for the duration of the thrips' life cycle. This generally means using a different class every 2–3 weeks depending on time of year. Generation times are longer at cooler temperatures.

- Apply pesticides in early morning and late afternoon, when flight activity of thrips is at a peak. This increases exposure of the thrips to the pesticides.

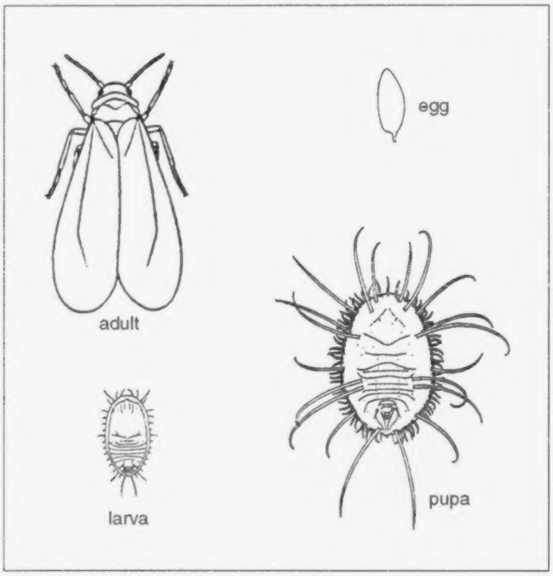
Whiteflies

Description and Life History

Adult whiteflies are small, winged, white insects about 1.5–2 mm long. They lay eggs on the underside of the youngest leaves and are too small to be seen clearly without a microscope. A female whitefly may lay up to 300 eggs during her lifetime and can live up to two months. The nymphs or crawlers hatch in 5–10 days, are flat and scale-like, and crawl around for a short while before becoming immobile.

Adults emerge after three nymphal stages and one pupal stage. Old pupal skins and adults may be found on the underside of lower leaves, which may have symptoms of wilt. On average, the whitefly completes its life cycle in 35 days at 18°C and in 18 days at 30°C. Whiteflies have no special overwintering stage and can usually survive as long as some plant life is available.

FIGURE 4–2. Greenhouse Whitefly

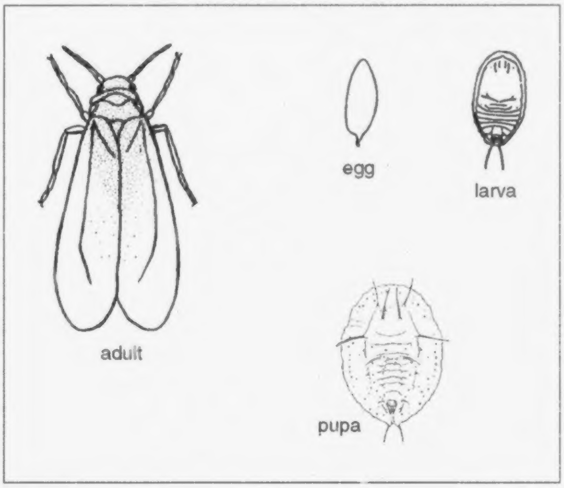


Species of Whiteflies

Two whiteflies concern growers in Ontario: the greenhouse whitefly (GWF) and the silverleaf whitefly (SLWF). The GWF and SLWF adults look very similar, albeit with some differences:

- The SLWF is slightly smaller than GWF, and its body is more yellow.
- At rest, SLWF holds its wings tent-like above its body, while the GWF holds them flatter and more parallel to the surface on which it is resting.
- The major diagnostic differences between GWF and SLWF appear in the pupal stages. The GWF pupa is raised off the leaf surface and is surrounded by a fringe of hairs, while the SLWF pupa sits flat on the leaf and does not have a fringe. These features are best seen with a microscope.
- SLWF fly in a more direct manner, while the GWF assume a more haphazard flight pattern.
- The life cycle of SLWF takes longer to complete.
- SLWF is less adapted to cold conditions.

FIGURE 4–3. Silverleaf Whitefly



Damage

- Piercing/sucking mouthparts allow whiteflies to remove sap from the plant, reducing plant vigour.
- Whiteflies excrete large amounts of a sugary substance called honeydew. Honeydew promotes the growth of a black sooty mould fungus on leaf and fruit surfaces, reducing photosynthesis and fruit quality respectively. The sooty mould itself does not damage the plants.
- The SLWF is reported to transmit over 60 viruses, and the GWF has been associated with the spread of beet pseudo-yellows virus in cucumbers.

Control Strategies

- Implement a routine monitoring program using yellow sticky cards and plant inspections.
- Use host plants more attractive to whiteflies than the main crop as an early detection tool or as a trap plant. Plants such as eggplant and fuchsia can be used for these purposes.
- Identify the whitefly species present on the crop.
- React promptly when whitefly adults either on cards or on terminal leaves are observed.

- Maintain good weed control inside and outside the greenhouse.

Biological Control

- Two parasitic wasps — *Encarsia formosa* and *Eretmocerus eremicus* — are commercially available for whitefly control. *Encarsia formosa* is more effective against GWF but provides some control against SLWF. *Eretmocerus* is more effective against SLWF but also provides good control of GWF. A small, black beetle, *Delphastus pusillus* is also available commercially but is likely to be effective only where there are heavy populations of whitefly (a situation that most growers would want to control more quickly with pesticides).

- Good sanitation, weed control and low whitefly numbers to begin with are essential for successful biological control of whitefly.

Encarsia formosa

About 0.6 mm long, adult wasps are parasites that kill whiteflies mainly by laying eggs into the immature stages or scales (mostly the third and fourth larval stages). Adult *Encarsia* can live for a few days to a month depending on the temperature. Females lay 50–350 eggs in their lifetime. A greenhouse whitefly scale turns black 10–14 days after being parasitized. On average, the adult wasp emerges 2 weeks later. When the adult develops fully, it cuts an opening in the top portion of the black scale before emerging. Parasitized SLWF turn tan-brown and are less easily noticed. For biological control of SLWF, consider higher introduction rates.

To use *Encarsia* successfully:

- Avoid pesticides with long residual effects for at least 3 months before the initial release.

- Monitor the crop for whitefly presence at all production stages and follow population level trends to place and time parasite releases more accurately.

- Introduce *Encarsia* at the first sign of whitefly, or preventively before whiteflies are detected. If whiteflies are present before the release of *Encarsia*, knock back populations with a low-residual pesticide.

- Don't use *Encarsia* between December and February without adjusting light and temperature conditions to suit the parasite.

- Distribute *Encarsia* in shaded parts of the plant where the parasites are protected from direct sunlight.

- Distribute cards relatively evenly, but place more in areas where whiteflies have been observed. Achieve more distribution points by purchasing cards with fewer parasitized scales per card.

- Don't remove leaves with immature parasitized scales during deleafing or pruning operations in vegetable crops such as tomato. Such removal slows buildup of *Encarsia* numbers and parasitism rate.

- Continue introducing *Encarsia* until approximately 80% of the scales on older leaves are black. During warmer months when whiteflies migrate into the greenhouses, maintain or increase introductions.

Eretmocerus eremicus

Adults are about 0.6 mm long and yellow. They lay eggs under the whitefly larvae (preferably 2nd or 3rd stage). This wasp has a sex ratio of 1:1 (male:female). Introduction rates refer to the number of females introduced. This is different from *Encarsia*, where all individuals are female. The effectiveness of this wasp is due to both host feeding by the adult and parasitism. The parasitized whitefly pupa is a yellowish-brownish colour (for both GWF and SLWF).

Delphastus pusillus

Delphastus is a predatory beetle. Both adult and larval *Delphastus* feed on whiteflies, particularly on the eggs and nymphs. *Delphastus* are reported to avoid parasitized scales, feeding on principally the non-parasitized scales. This behaviour makes *Delphastus* compatible with *Encarsia*. Use these beetles to supplement the activity of *Encarsia* in reducing whitefly populations. Adult *Delphastus* live for 6–9 weeks. They are reported to require a minimum diet of 10 whitefly eggs/day to reproduce.

Physical Control

Sticky Traps

Use yellow sticky traps in various forms to trap large numbers of adult whiteflies. Large, yellow sticky boards or 30 cm-long yellow sticky tapes can be placed in "hot spots" at a rate of about 1/plant. Alternatively, hang yellow sticky tape between posts along plant rows. Such tapes will also trap fungus gnats, shoreflies, *Aphidius* spp. and *Encarsia*, especially under low whitefly populations. Be careful in using large quantities of sticky tape in conjunction with parasitoids, especially *Eretmocerus*, which is highly attracted to yellow.

Vacuuming

Hand vacuum adults in "hot spots" to rapidly remove adult whiteflies.

Insect Barriers

Install fine screens over vents and doorways to significantly reduce migration of outdoor populations into greenhouses. Where whiteflies move in from adjacent field crops (e.g., field tomato) in large numbers at certain times of the year (e.g., during harvest), consider screening as a first line of defence.

Chemical Control

- Rational and judicious pesticide use requires a regular monitoring program, using action thresholds, rotating chemical classes and incorporating all available non-chemical control strategies.
- Whiteflies have developed resistance to many pesticides. Judicious use will extend the effective life of pesticides while delaying the buildup of resistance.
- When using a systemic insecticide such as Intercept, ensure that it is applied correctly. The root system should be well developed and the plant actively growing. If the plant is to be pinched, apply the product 10–14 days afterwards. Limit watering for a week after application to reduce the amount of leachate; Intercept is very water-soluble and will be easily leached from the pot.

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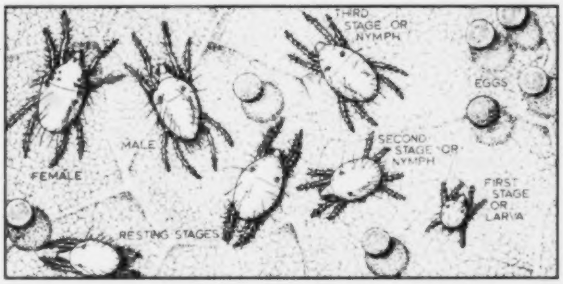
Two-Spotted Spider Mite

Description and Life History

The two-spotted spider mite (TSSM) attacks many greenhouse crops. The eight-legged female adult is approximately 0.5 mm long with a rounded abdomen. The male is distinguished from the female by its smaller, narrower body and pointed abdomen. Adults range from pale yellow to orange to brown. The overwintering or diapausing stage is reddish-orange. Day lengths of 12 hours and less, decreasing temperatures and a deteriorating food source will induce diapause in spider mites. During diapause, spider mites can tolerate very low temperatures. A short spell of heating is not sufficient to break its diapause.

Close examination of leaf undersurfaces will show the mites to be miniscule moving dots. The two dark spots on the body of TSSM are the gut contents showing through the transparent body. After mating, each female mite lays about six pearly white eggs/day. Over an average lifetime, a female lays 100 or more eggs on the undersurface of foliage. Newly hatched mites pass through the typical six-legged larval stage and eight-legged protonymph and deutonymph stages. The last of these is an immobile resting stage, very tolerant of miticides. The life cycle from egg to adult ranges from 23 days at 15°C to just 4 days at 32°C. Development is fastest under hot, dry conditions.

FIGURE 4–4. Two-Spotted Spider Mite



Damage

- All active stages of the two-spotted spider mite feed by piercing the lower epidermis of the leaf with sucking mouthparts.
- The feeding injury starts as a yellow "stippling." As mite numbers increase, the entire leaf appears stippled or light-coloured on the upper surface. Very heavily infested leaves become yellow and brittle, with obvious webbing on the leaves.
- If infestations proceed without control measures, plants may be killed. Mite populations seem to explode at certain times of the year, since the life cycle varies considerably with temperature.
- Other factors, such as humidity, plant nutrition and cultivar, are important and, at times, can be used to help reduce mite outbreaks.

Control Strategies

- In ornamental crops, monitor with regular crop inspections to detect early infestations **before** mites build up. Pay particular attention to susceptible varieties and crops. In crops such as rose, inspect both upper and lower canopies.
- For vegetable crops, conduct a proper cleanup in August to reduce initial infestations in crops the following spring. Do this just before the overwintering or diapausing phase of the spider mites, since the diapausing mites hibernate in the ground, hollow stems, pipefittings, cracks and crevices during the fall and winter.

The mites become active again during late winter and early spring. The red mite stages are generally pesticide resistant and are not as readily fed upon by predators. When the red ex-diapausing mites are detected, use soap sprays on lightly infested leaves and remove and destroy more heavily infested leaves.

Biological Control

- Control spider mites biologically using the predatory mite *Phytoseiulus persimilis.*
- Other predatory mites can be used against this pest, including some strains that are high-temperature tolerant or pesticide resistant. For example, the predatory mite *Amblyseius californicus* is reported to better tolerate dry conditions, and *A. fallacis* is resistant to some pesticides.

Phytoseiulus persimilis

Phytoseiulus persimilis is about the same size as TSSM but is pear-shaped, pale salmon to bright orange, does not have two spots and moves more rapidly on long legs. It feeds on spider mites and does not hibernate.

Without spider mites, the predators die. This means new spider mite infestations require new introductions of the predator. Adult predators feed on about 7 adults or 15–20 eggs per day. At 20°C, *persimilis* almost doubles the reproductive rate of the predator. Control with *P. persimilis* is best between 20°C and 26°C. Above 30°C and at humidities under 60%, predators do not thrive and seek cooler, more protected areas lower in the crop canopy. In contrast, TSSM thrive under these conditions.

- Predators are available commercially either mixed with vermiculite or on bean leaves. With either carrier, treat infested plants at first sign of damage.
- Try to place a few predators onto every infested leaf.
- Before releasing the predators, ensure that they are alive and very active.

Cultural Control

Misting plants and maintaining relatively high humidities help suppress spider mite populations. For example, at 20°C and 36% RH, female TSSMs will lay about seven eggs per day; at 95% humidity, about 30% fewer eggs are laid.

Chemical Control

Because of their great reproductive potential, two-spotted spider mites easily develop pesticide resistance. To effectively manage this pest using pesticides, observe these guidelines:

- Direct sprays to the underside of leaves where spider mites usually congregate.
- The webs in areas of high mite density can protect the mites and the eggs within and beneath the web. In such cases, use higher spray pressures to penetrate the web.
- Use non-chemical control options as much as possible to minimize the development of pesticide resistance.

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Aphids

Description and Life History

Aphids are small (2–3 mm), soft-bodied insects with long legs and antennae. A pair of tube-like structures called cornicles project from the posterior end. Several species may infest greenhouses, with colour patterns ranging between black, grey, red, yellow and green. The species most commonly found in greenhouse crops are the green peach aphid *(Myzus persicae),* the cotton or melon aphid *(Aphis gossypii)* the foxglove aphid *(Aulacorthum solani)* and the potato aphid *(Macrosiphum euphorbiae).*

Adult aphids are predominantly wingless, although winged adults can develop under conditions of high population density. This adaptation serves as a dispersal mechanism, allowing aphids to move into a greenhouse from outside, or to spread rapidly within a greenhouse.

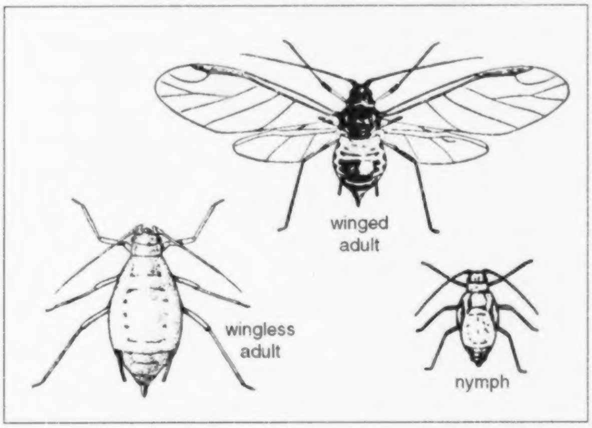
In a greenhouse situation, all aphids are female and give birth to live young. These offspring can reproduce within 7–10 days. One aphid can give birth to 60–100 young over a 20-day period. Aphids can rapidly achieve very large populations.

Damage

- Aphids pierce plant tissue with their mouthparts and suck out the sap, causing deformed leaves and flowers.
- Aphids moult through a number of different stages before they become adults. The cast-off skins they leave behind each time they moult are an indicator of their presence.
- They excrete a sugary, sticky substance called honeydew, which promotes the development of black, sooty mould fungus. Some aphids can transmit plant virus

diseases, such as cucumber mosaic virus in cucumber crops.

FIGURE 4–5. Green Peach Aphid



Control Strategies

- When monitoring for aphids, catch winged adults on yellow sticky boards.
- For wingless aphids, inspect new foliage carefully and regularly to prevent large infestations.
- Spot treating isolated infestations can prevent their spread to the rest of the greenhouse.
- When infestations occur in the blossom stage, smokes may be more effective and less phytotoxic to plants.

Biological Control

- Several types of biological control agents are readily available: the predatory midge *Aphidoletes aphidimyza*, the parasitic wasp *Aphidius* spp. and ladybeetles (*Hippodamia convergens* and *Harmonia axyridis*).
- *Aphidoletes* and ladybeetles are usually used to supplement the activity of *Aphidius* and for reducing aphid populations in "hot spot" areas.

Aphidoletes aphidimyza

In the adult stage, *A. aphidimyza* resemble small mosquitoes or fungus gnats. Females lay up to 200 eggs in their lifetime. Eggs are laid close to aphid colonies, so the orange larvae have a readily available food source on hatching.

Larvae usually hatch after 2–3 days. After 7–14 days in the larval stage, they drop to the floor to pupate. The pupal stage usually lasts about 2 weeks. Adult *A. aphidimyza* feed on honeydew, and larvae can kill 3–50 aphids per day. Under natural day lengths, *A. aphidimyza* enters diapause between September and March; they are not effective during this period.

Aphidius spp.

This parasitic wasp does not enter diapause and is usually more effective during winter, early spring and fall. During summer, other parasitic wasp species can parasitize *Aphidius*, reducing their impact on aphid populations. Optimum conditions for *Aphidius* are 18°C–25°C and 80% RH. *Aphidius* completes its development from egg to adult in about 10 days at 25°C, and 14 days at 21°C.

Several species of *Aphidius* are commercially available. *Aphidius matricariae* can parasitize about 40 aphid species, including the green peach aphid, while *Aphidius colemani* is more effective against the cotton aphid but still works quite effectively against the green peach aphid. *Aphidius ervi* is the best choice against the potato aphid.

Hippodamia convergens

Both adult and larval ladybeetles feed on aphids. Larvae can feed on a total of about 400 aphids and adults on up to about 5,000 aphids each. Ladybeetles enter diapause under short-day conditions. When day lengths are suitable, ladybeetles must feed on aphids to maintain egg production. Eggs are torpedo-shaped and orange. They are laid in circular clusters on the underside of leaves, and hatch in 2–5 days.

The larval stage lasts for about three weeks, after which they pupate. Adults emerge from pupal cases after 3–5 days. To increase the percentage of ladybeetles remaining in the greenhouse, sprinkle a sweet liquid (e.g., diluted pop) over the beetles, and release them in late evening. The sweet liquid provides an immediate energy and water source.

Fungus Gnats

Description and Life History

The grey to black adult fly is about 3–4 mm long with long legs, thread-like antennae and large compound eyes that meet above the base of the antennae. The adult is a weak flier, frequently observed resting on the media surface. Each female lives about 10 days and lays about 150 oval, white eggs in the organic matter of the media. Eggs hatch in 2–7 days, depending on the temperature, producing white larvae that are 4–6 mm long.

The larvae have 12 abdominal segments and a distinctive shiny black head. The larvae spin pupal cases and remain immobile in the soil for 4–6 days, after which adult flies emerge. As with most insects, fungus gnats become more active and reproduce more quickly at warmer temperatures. The life cycle can be completed in 21 days at 24°C, compared with 38 days at 16°C.

Shoreflies, another common greenhouse pest, are often confused with fungus gnats. The adults are stouter than fungus gnats, stronger fliers and have four clear spots on the wings. Shorefly larvae live in soil, like fungus gnats, but lack the distinctive black head capsule. They are likely to prefer moister conditions than fungus gnats and are often found in wet areas under benches with both adults and larvae feeding on algae.

Shoreflies are not usually a threat to greenhouse crops, but can feed on roots in recirculating systems. Shorefly control requires controlling algae, either directly (by applying chemicals) or indirectly (by reducing moisture necessary for algal growth; or reducing the high light levels the algae need, perhaps by the use of blackout skirts around benches).

Damage

- Although fungus gnats generally feed on decaying organic matter in the soil, they can also feed on the young roots of plants. This is especially true when gnat populations are high.

- Fungus gnats have occasionally been observed feeding on the youngest shoots of cucumbers.

- Root feeding by fungus gnats makes a plant susceptible to root diseases such as *Pythium* root rot. Fungus gnats have also been implicated in the spread of disease-causing organisms such as *Pythium, Fusarium, Verticillium* and *Rhizoctonia.*

Control Strategies

- Sanitation inside the greenhouse and in the surrounding outside area is very important.

- Avoid overwatering and maintain good drainage to prevent water puddling — fungus gnats and shoreflies thrive in moist conditions.

Biological Control

Biological control agents include a predatory mite, *Hypoaspis,* a predatory beetle *Atheta coriaria* and a parasitic nematode, *Steinernema feltiae.*

FIGURE 4–6. Dark-Winged Fungus Gnats

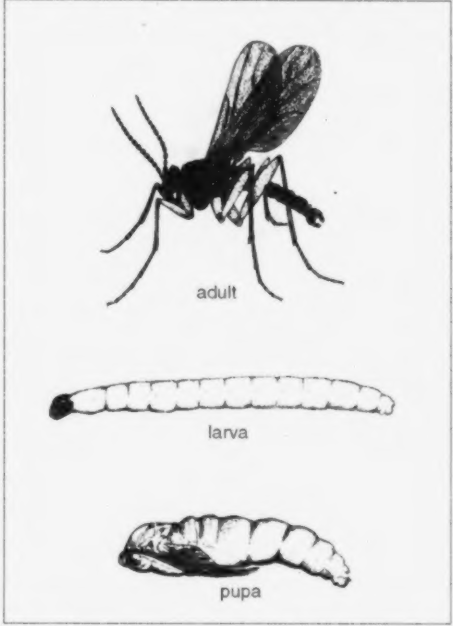
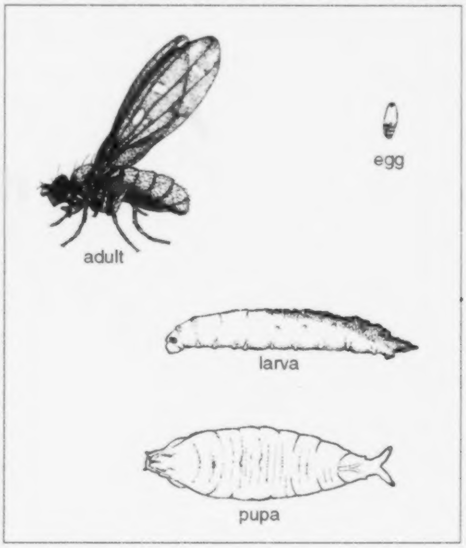


FIGURE 4–7. Shoreflies



Hypoaspis

Hypoaspis is a soil-dwelling, brown mite that feeds on fungus gnat eggs and larvae, algae, thrips pupae, springtails, nematodes, and larvae of various flies and beetles. *Hypoaspis* is a hardy mite that can live about 24 days without food. It is not affected by low light conditions and has a life cycle of about 9–11 days under greenhouse conditions.

Hypoaspis is found mainly in the top 1 cm or on the surface of the plant media. It works best when applied to the media just after plants are potted up or vegetable seedlings planted out. *Hypoaspis* is most effective if introduced when fungus gnat populations are still low or non-existent.

Atheta coriaria

The rove beetle *Atheta coriaria* is a small, black soil-dwelling beetle about 3–4 mm long. It is very active and both the adult and the three larval stages feed on fungus gnats (eggs and larvae), shoreflies (eggs and larvae) and thrips (pupae). It is produced and sold commercially, but is also naturally occurring and is often found in greenhouses where pesticide use is reduced. It should be used in a similar fashion to *Hypoaspis*, introduced into the crop early to control soil-dwelling pests.

Nematodes

The nematode *Steinernema feltiae* is best used under higher population conditions. Nematodes enter the body openings of fungus gnat larvae, then release bacteria, which multiply and kill the larvae. Because nematodes are believed unable to multiply within the bodies of fungus gnat larvae, use several consecutive nematode applications to achieve control.

To use nematodes successfully:

- Shake nematode stock solutions every hour to incorporate oxygen into the water.
- Use the solution within 4 hours.
- Media temperatures should be 16°C–30°C.
- Never expose nematode suspensions to direct sunlight, which destroys the bacteria within the bodies of the nematodes.
- Plant media should be pH 3–8.
- Check the compatibility or residual activity of fungicides before applying to media that have been, or will be, treated with nematodes.

Chemical Control

Soil drenches can effectively control the larvae.

Leafminers

Description and Life History

Two main species of leafminers affect Ontario growers: the vegetable leafminer *(Liriomyza sativae)* and the serpentine leafminer *(Liriomyza trifolii)*. A third species, the pea leafminer, *Liriomyza huidobrensis*, which is a major pest in other parts of the world, has also been found in Ontario. Although the serpentine leafminer can complete development on tomato and cucumber, it prefers chrysanthemum, gerbera and gypsophila. Conversely, vegetable leafminer prefers tomato, cucumber and celery, but will attack chrysanthemum and other plants in the absence of its preferred host. The pea leafminer has a wider host range and can move into field-grown crops as well, including vegetable crops such as cole crops, lettuce and celery. The three species of leafminer are similar in appearance and biology.

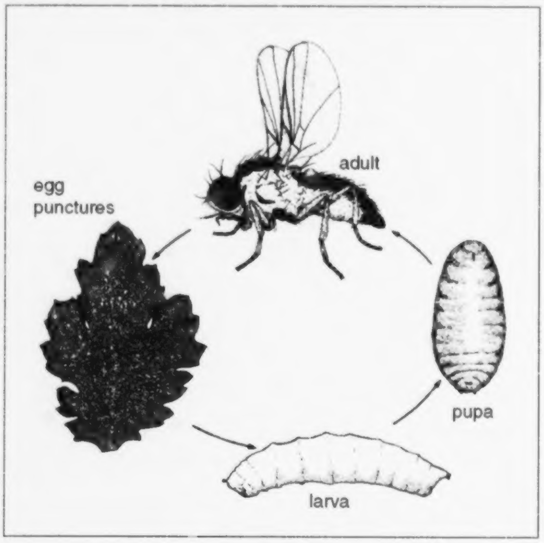
The adult leafminer is small (approximately 3 mm long), with black and yellow markings on the head and thorax. Adults become active at sunrise. Females feed on soft, succulent leaves by piercing the surface with their ovipositor, then lapping the liquid exuding from the leaf.

Female flies begin laying eggs 12–24 hours after emerging from the pupa. They lay about 250 eggs during their approximately 30-day lifetime. Eggs are laid in about one out of seven leaf punctures (or "stipples"). The optimal temperature for leafminer development is 30°C. At temperatures above or below 30°C, egg production/female declines considerably. After 2–4 days, eggs hatch, and the larvae begin feeding (or mining) in the leaf tissue.

The larvae mature in 4–7 days in summer, then cut a hole in the leaf surface, and drop to the ground. Pupation takes place within a few hours, in the plant media or on plastic sheeting (where used). Pupation can also occur on the leaves. The pupal stage may last 5–10 days in the summer, and up to 90 days during periods of low temperature (10°C–12°C) and scarce food supply. This may account for the winter survival of leaf miners around the inside perimeter of the greenhouse, though no adult leafminers are evident. From the pupae, a new generation of adult flies emerges.

There is considerable overlapping of stages of the insect life cycle within any greenhouse. The complete life cycle of the leafminer can be 14 days at 30°C, 24 days at 20°C and 65 days at 14°C.

FIGURE 4–8. Leafminer



Damage

- Leafminer feeding may indirectly affect yield by reducing the plant's photosynthetic area, and by damaging water-conducting vessels (causing leaf desiccation and leaf drop).

- Feeding damage by leafminers mars the appearance of ornamental crops, significantly reducing their economic value.

Control Strategies

- Inspect all new plant material entering the greenhouse.

- Destroy infested seedlings, cuttings and plant parts.

- If growing in ground beds, steam-sterilize the entire greenhouse floor between crops.

- Monitor the crop for pests with yellow sticky boards and regular crop inspections.

- Get rid of weeds inside and outside the greenhouse. Weeds such as lamb's-quarters, chickweed, dandelion, plantain, common mallow and nightshade are good hosts for leafminers.

- Don't over-fertilize the crop — excess nitrogen levels can increase leafminer problems.

- Bag and remove detached leaves from the greenhouse as soon as possible. Leafminer larvae can complete their development in leaves even after they are removed from the plant.

Biological Control

Biological control agents include the parasitic wasps *Diglyphus isaea* and *Dacnusa sibirica. Diglyphus* is likely to be a better choice in summer, when its numbers may be supplemented by naturally occurring populations migrating into the greenhouse from outside. *Dacnusa* will perform better than *Diglyphus* over the winter.

Diglyphus isaea

Diglyphus is a small, black wasp with a metallic green sheen and short antennae. After locating a mine, the female first paralyzes the leafminer, then inserts an egg through the leaf, placing it near the leafminer. It may deposit up to five eggs in this manner. The larva that hatches is initially colourless, then becomes yellow-brown, and finally turquoise. Development time from egg to adult is about 11 days at 25°C. This is generally shorter than that of both the leafminer and *Dacnusa.*

Diglyphus can parasitize leafminers already parasitized by *Dacnusa.* It becomes the dominant species during summer, when warm conditions favour activity. Presence of short mines indicates *Diglyphus* activity, as the paralyzed leafminer stops feeding immediately.

Dacnusa sibirica

The adult is a small, black wasp that differs from *Diglyphus* in having long, flexible antennae and lacking the metallic green sheen. Unlike *Diglyphus,* a female *Dacnusa* inserts an egg into the body of the leafminer. Each female lives for about 2 weeks, during which time she may lay up to 90 eggs.

Eggs hatch within 4 days, and the larvae mature within the leafminer pupae. Development time from egg to adult is about 2 weeks at 22°C. All *Dacnusa* development takes place within the leafminer's body; therefore, assessing parasitism is difficult.

Chemical Control

- Leafminers easily develop insecticide resistance.

- Ensure good pesticide coverage of the crop.

- Rotate pesticide classes every 2–3 weeks on crops for which registered pesticides exist. Currently, pesticide registrations exist only for ornamental crops.

Line drawings of insects in this section are used with permission from *Insect and Related Pests of Flowers and Foliage Plants. (1994).* North Carolina Co-operative Extension Service, Ed. J. R. Baker.

5. Occasional Pests

Ants

Ants are easily recognized by their elbowed antennae and narrow waists. They range from 1.5–6 mm long.

- Ants are attracted to sweet substances. In greenhouses where insect feeding has produced honeydew, or where flowers have nectaries, ants may be a problem. Treat all ant trails or nests located in or near the greenhouse. Flooding nests with insecticidal soap and using household boric acid baits can provide some control.

Black Vine Weevil

Weevils (or snout beetles) have a hard body with a snout and elbowed antennae. This species is dull brown to black, about 9 mm long with fine ridges along the back. The larvae are legless grubs, white with reddish-brown heads, and are found among roots of various bedding plants.

- Adults actively lay eggs in June, and the larvae feed on the roots for the rest of the season. The larvae will attack a wide range of plants including rose, geranium, fern, gardenia, kalanchoe and rhododendron. Although the adult does not fly, it can move to new plantings easily.
- Use control measures in late May and June. Inspecting the roots of all material introduced to the greenhouse may prevent an infestation.

Caterpillars

Several different insects have caterpillar stages that damage greenhouse crops. These include leaf rollers, armyworms, cutworms, loopers, fruitworms, hornworms, and leaf tier and stalk borers. The adult moths of these caterpillars are often attracted to greenhouse lights in the summer and will then lay eggs that hatch into the caterpillar pest.

- Armyworms and cutworms feed directly on plant foliage and may cause considerable damage. Both insects are dark brown or grey with longitudinal stripes. Cutworms burrow into the soil during the day and come out to feed at night.
- Use insecticides recommended for caterpillars to bring armyworm and cutworm infestations under control.
- Cabbage loopers commonly attack certain greenhouse crops such as alstroemeria between July and September. Cabbage loopers are green with faint white longitudinal body stripes.
- Stalk borers bore into plant stems, making them more difficult to control.
- Another damaging borer, the European corn borer, can infest many fruits before being detected. They normally begin infestations in spring around May to early June. There are two generations of this borer in southwestern Ontario, and one generation elsewhere in Ontario.
- Pheromone traps can be used to detect certain moth species, and light traps can be used to monitor many species.
- If you detect these pests early, begin control before the small caterpillars start feeding. Screened vents help prevent the entry of all caterpillars, and a good inside/outside weed control program will reduce potential infestation sites. Apply a bacterial insecticide, Dipel or Thuricide, for good control of loopers and most leaf-eating caterpillars that are not miners.

Grasshoppers

Grasshoppers are easily recognizable and occasionally invade greenhouses.

- They will feed on almost any vegetation and, in large numbers, can destroy plants.
- Grass and weeds near greenhouses may allow a grasshopper infestation to occur, usually in late summer and fall.

Mealybugs

Two distinct groups of mealybugs are found in greenhouses. The more common foliage-feeding mealybugs are white, wax-covered, scale-like insects with piercing mouthparts that remove plant sap.

- Mealybugs produce large amounts of honeydew. The females (1–3 mm long) lay large numbers of eggs in masses of wax. Active immature mealybugs called crawlers hatch from these eggs in 5–10 days. The nymphs mature into reproductive adults in 6–8 weeks.

- Damage is caused by the removal of plant sap, the growth of black, sooty mould fungus on the honeydew and the unsightly appearance of the waxy secretions.

- Mealybugs are a serious greenhouse pest because the crawlers spread rapidly and exist under bud scales and within leaf axils. Males, present in low numbers, are small, winged insects.

- Occasionally, root-feeding or subterranean mealybugs are found, within masses of wax, on the roots of wilting or yellowing plants. These insects are much like those described above, but secrete less wax over their bodies.

- Inspect all plant materials entering the greenhouse carefully for the presence of mealybugs. The crawler stage of all mealybugs may spread to other plants through contaminated equipment or via water leaching through pots. Most infestations result from introduced contaminated material.

- Biological control agents for this pest include the Australian ladybeetle, *Cryptolaemus montrouzieri,* the common ladybeetle, *Hippodamia convergens,* and a parasitic wasp, *Leptomastix dactylopii.*

Midges

These small (1 mm), delicate flies lay eggs in the stems, leaves or flower buds of ornamental plants. The larvae burrow into plant tissue, causing swellings of stems, galls on leaves or collapse of buds.

- The rose midge is a concern to Ontario rose growers as it can quickly cause serious losses. Flower buds bend or become distorted, then turn brown and die. The rose midge is most abundant during the hot summer months, when it enters greenhouses from infestations on outdoor roses. Eggs hatch in approximately 2 days; larvae mature in 5–7 days, and drop to the soil to pupate in another 5–6 days. The adult midge then emerges and lives for only a couple of days.

- Pesticide sprays for the adult stage are ineffective. For rose midge, use a foliar spray of the systemic Orthene to control larvae in the base of the buds.

Mites

Cyclamen Mite/Broad Mite

Cyclamen mites and broad mites are microscopic in size. They are no more than 0.25 mm long and cannot be seen without magnification. The hind pair of legs of the female is thread-like while those of the male are pincer-like.

- The pale brown female mite deposits approximately 100 eggs, 80% of them female, around the crown of the plant or along the midrib of unfolded leaves. The mites develop through the six-legged larval stage and quiescent nymphal stage with eight legs, similarly to the two-spotted mite. The life cycle from egg to adult is about 2 weeks but varies depending on the temperature.

- Distorted leaf tissue and/or small, blasted or twisted flower buds and flowers are usually the first damage symptoms. Foliage will often show purplish areas. The cyclamen mites feed around the crowns of plants or in the flower buds. Cyclamen is usually the most seriously injured, but many foliage and bedding plants, as well as other potted crops, can also be attacked.

Tomato Russet Mites

The adult mite is 0.2 mm long and 0.05 mm wide. Because of its small size, the mite is not noticed on plants until it reaches damaging levels. At this time, the stems, leaves and fruit appear beige or bronze as a result of the high mite population density.

- Russet mites appear to thrive under dry conditions. The life cycle lasts about 6 days at 27°C and 30% RH. Females can lay about 16 eggs during their lifetime of about 3 weeks. Russet mites feed first on stems, then on leaves.

- Damage symptoms include yellowing, curling, and wilting of leaves; flower abortion; and bronzed, cracked fruit. If not controlled, the tomato russet mite will eventually kill the plant.

- Alternative hosts for this pest include nightshade, petunia and several other species of the tomato family.

- No early detection techniques exist for this mite. Once established in a crop, they easily spread by hands, equipment and clothing.

- There are no current recommendations for biological control. Work to date indicates that two predatory mites, *Amblyseius fallacis* and *Typhlodromus occidentalis*, are potential biocontrol agents.

Scale Insects

Scales are minute, wingless insects up to 3 mm long. They have piercing/sucking mouthparts and an oval or hemispherical body shape. Scales secrete a characteristic waxy or scale-like covering over their bodies. Males, which are rare, have wings.

- Most scales are females that lay hundreds of eggs under their immobile scale. When these eggs hatch, the small crawlers migrate to new feeding sites. Damage is caused by the removal of sap from plants, resulting in yellowing, wilting, stunting and distortion of plants.

- Several species have been identified on greenhouse ornamentals in recent years, mainly due to the increased amount of foliar stock being imported from tropical areas. Many newer introductions of fern, palm and ivy plants are susceptible to scale infestations.

- To help control scale, quarantine, check, and treat or destroy infested material.

- Biological control agents for soft and armoured scales include two small ladybeetles, *Chilocorus nigritus* and *Lindorus lophanthae*.

- A small parasitic wasp, *Metaphycus helvolus*, has been reported to help manage several species of soft scales. Another wasp, *Aphytis melinus*, can be used for several species of armoured scales.

Ivy Scale and Greedy Scale

These scales are similar in appearance, pale and circular with a prominent yellowish nipple in the centre. Both attack a wide variety of greenhouse plants such as ivy, palm, ficus and fuchsia.

Fern Scale

The shield of this scale resembles an oyster shell. It is brown with a lighter terminal nipple and is usually found on ferns and other foliage.

Brown Soft Scale

Female scales are flat, brown and pliable. They have a wide host range and produce large amounts of honeydew that promotes the development of black, sooty mould fungus.

Hemispherical Scale

The scale covering on this species is very convex, brown and shiny. Ferns are a favourite host.

Slugs and Snails

Slugs are dark grey, soft-bodied creatures, 1.3–10 cm long. They glide over plants leaving a shiny trail. Slugs eat the foliage of most greenhouse plants, shredding the leaves, and they may completely destroy a plant.

- Snails are similar in colour and appearance to slugs, except that a snail bears a noticeable shell. The shell varies in colour and markings, and may be 1.3–5 cm in diameter. Snails are particularly injurious to seedlings. They eat holes in the flowers and leaves of many plants, leaving them shiny and tattered.

- Individual snails may lay up to 100 eggs, depending on the species. Slugs lay fewer eggs that may remain unhatched for long periods under dry conditions. They hatch upon return of moist conditions.

- Both slugs and snails need a damp environment and fairly humid air to survive. They avoid the sun and come out primarily at night or on cloudy days. During the day, slugs hide under boards and rocks or in other damp, shady places. If the air or substrate is dry, a snail can pull its entire body into its shell and remain dormant for up to 4 years.

- Some growers have reported good control of slugs by using certain parasitic nematodes.

Indirect control strategies for these organisms should focus on reducing their favoured habitat.

- Remove boards, bricks, etc. that are in contact with the ground, or arrange these to permit proper air circulation around and under them.

- Maintain a plant density that permits sunshine to penetrate to the ground level, provides good air circulation, and allows the plant media to dry.

- Where a low plant density is inappropriate, use a ground cover unattractive to snails (e.g., rough-cut cedar chips or crushed eggshells).

- Sawdust and diatomaceous earth are an effective barrier if kept dry.

Various devices can trap or attract slugs and snails for subsequent destruction.

- Use traps using beer or a mixture of water and commercial yeast as an attractant.

- Invert flower pots and fill with crushed snails or slugs, or invert grapefruit halves to attract slugs and snails.

Chemical controls involve pesticides formulated as baits.

- Metaldehyde is toxic and must be inaccessible to children and pets.

- Prolonged use of baits is likely to produce a local bait-resistant population.

Sowbugs/Pillbugs

Sowbugs and pillbugs have grey, flattened, oval bodies up to 13 mm long with seven pairs of legs. Sowbugs have two small, tail-like structures that the pillbugs lack.

- They are both small decomposers but occasionally feed on roots and tender plant parts, causing seedling damage. They feed at night and hide during the day, preferring dark, moist areas with abundant organic matter.

- Sterilizing soil and eliminating decaying plant material and moist areas will help prevent a buildup of these pests.

- Many strategies used for snail and slug control also suppress sowbug/pillbug populations.

Springtails

Springtails are tiny, wingless insects 2–6 mm long. They range in colour from white, grey or yellow, to red, orange, purple, brown or mottled hues.

- They are usually found on the surface of moist soil, in pots or within the soil.

- They have a spring-like apparatus at the end of the abdomen that allows them to spring into the air.

- Most springtails are scavengers, feeding on decaying organic matter, algae or fungi. Because they usually don't feed on living plant material, chemical controls are rarely necessary.

Striped Cucumber Beetle

Striped cucumber beetles are yellow-green beetles about 6 mm long. They have three longitudinal stripes. These beetles and a relative, the spotted cucumber beetle, carry the bacteria *Erwinia tracheiphila*, which causes bacterial wilt in cucumbers and related species such as melons and squash.

- Striped adult cucumber beetles overwinter outdoors under old leaves, old logs or garbage. They emerge the following spring, mate, feed for several weeks, then lay orange-yellow eggs in the soil at the base of plants.

- Larvae usually hatch in 10 days, then feed on the roots of plants for 2–6 weeks. Fully grown larvae are about 9 mm long. Pupation takes place in the soil, and adults emerge after about 1 week. There is only one generation per year in Ontario.

- The adult beetles damage plants by chewing on leaves, stems and fruits, but the greatest damage comes from the wilt-causing bacteria they often carry in their gut, which can survive the winter in the gut. In the spring, the beetles inoculate plants with the disease as they feed on the plant tissue.

- There is no control for the wilt once a plant is infected. Inoculated leaves generally wilt within 5–6 days, and the plant dies within 2 weeks. Striped cucumber beetles can also transmit cucumber mosaic virus.

- The best control comes from insect barriers installed over all greenhouse openings to exclude the adult beetles.

Symphylans

Symphylans are found under stones, in rotting wood, and in moist soil high in decaying organic matter. They are small white creatures resembling centipedes, with slender, long, white bodies (1–5 mm long), 10–12 pairs of legs and long antennae. (Centipedes have 15 pairs of legs.)

- While centipedes are beneficial predators that prey on many insects, symphylans can feed on the roots of plants. On many crops, damage shows as tiny black marks on the roots where a hemispherical piece of tissue has been scooped out. Injured roots become stubby, and the plant becomes stunted.

- Damage caused by symphylans to roots and root hairs provides entry points for root-rotting diseases.

- Steam sterilization of soil or heating of soil by solarization can help to reduce populations.

Tarnished Plant Bug

These bugs are about 6 mm long, yellow-brown, with piercing mouthparts. The adults and their green nymphs feed on many crop and weed species. They can be serious pests to greenhouse crops such as chrysanthemum, gerbera, cucumber and pepper.

- Eggs are inserted into plant tissue, and the small nymphs complete their life cycle in about 4 weeks. They damage new growth by causing foliage distortion and dead or distorted flower buds. They are most active during the summer and fall, and may gain access to the greenhouses from surrounding weedy areas.

- Tarnished plant bugs tend to appear in crops where pesticide use is minimal. Eliminating weeds that may serve as spring/summer hosts or overwintering sites will lower overall populations.

- Screening vents will help control this pest.

Tomato Pinworm

The tomato pinworm (TPW) is a semi-tropical pest that can infest tomato crops in Ontario. It inflicts damage by feeding on tomato leaves and fruit.

Other suitable hosts for TPW are potatoes and eggplant. Weeds such as nightshade and its relatives may also serve as hosts.

- The adult is a small, light-brown moth about 6 mm long. It is generally more active at night, laying most of its eggs on younger leaves during the first few nights of activity. Newly hatched larvae walk on the leaf surface for a very short time before entering the leaf to start mining.

- There are four larval stages, the first two spent in the leaf. The third and fourth stages may be found between two leaves knitted together, in a leaf that has been folded over, or inside fruits. Larvae characteristically enter fruits just beneath the calyx.

- Mature larvae may either remain on the plant or drop to the ground to pupate. On the ground, pupation usually occurs within the top 15 cm of soil. Tomato pinworms do not diapause. Their development continues year-round, slowing during cold weather periods. Development time from egg to adult usually ranges between 28 and 70 days, depending on temperature. The life cycle is completed in 28 days at 24°C, and can be as short as 19 days at 30°C.

For control:

- Inspect all seedlings for larval feeding damage.

- Destroy all old infested plants and any debris from infested crops.

- Monitor for the presence of tomato pinworm with pheromone or light traps, and by inspecting crops regularly. Note that pheromone traps attract only male tomato pinworm, whereas light traps attract both sexes of tomato pinworm and many other insect species.

- Hand-pick damaged leaves and destroy larvae within the mines.

- Destroy weeds and stray tomato seedlings inside and around the greenhouse.

- Install insect barriers over vents.

Vertebrate Pests

Rats and mice may be very destructive in the greenhouse. They feed on almost any food source and can cause damage by gnawing and burrowing.

- Norway rats and field mice are the most common vertebrate inhabitants of greenhouses. Baits containing rodenticides such as chlorophacinone, diphacinone, warfarin and zinc phosphide can give some control.

The first three chemicals are anticoagulants, and multiple doses are usually required. Zinc phosphide is not an anticoagulant and is more acutely toxic — a single dose can kill.

- Ensure that the toxic baits are placed in covered stations where pets and children cannot get them.

To minimize the development of rodenticide resistance, particularly to the anticoagulants, always adopt other control measures.

- Store all potential food material in tight-fitting containers.
- Use many traps where there are signs of activity, placing one trap every 2–3 m along walls.
- Set traps at right angles to the wall, with the bait and trigger facing the wall.
- Handle traps with gloves to avoid contaminating them with human smells.
- Try different baits. Suggested baits include peanut butter mixed with oats, raisins, gumdrops, any other sticky food material, and cotton (which provides nesting material).
- Maintain several female cats, which tend to be more predacious than males, as biological control agents.

Root Nematodes

Plant parasitic nematodes are small (<1 mm long) worm-like organisms that live in the root media. They are broadly divided into two groups—ectoparasites (which attack plants externally) and endoparasites (which spend at least part of their life cycle within the plant tissue).

- All parasitic nematodes have stylets through which they inject saliva into plant tissue. The saliva causes most of the damage, causing necrosis or the proliferation of giant cells that produce galls.
- Nematodes cause damage mainly by reducing the ability of plants to absorb water and nutrients. Above-ground symptoms of nematode damage include weakened plants that wilt in the sun, yellow or pale green leaves, and stunted fruit or flowers.
- Where nematicides are used between crops, nematode infestations often recur because of insufficient penetration of the chemicals into the lower soil levels. Soils so treated should always be properly aerated to avoid subsequent plant damage.

Root-Lesion Nematode, *Pratylenchus penetrans* (Cobb)

This endoparasitic nematode is native to Ontario soils and can attack many floral and vegetable crops.

- All stages are thread-like and invisible to the naked eye.
- This nematode invades the outer layers of young roots, causing small brown-to-black elliptical lesions that merge to discolour the roots and kill them.

Northern Root-Knot Nematode, *Meloidogyne hapla* (Chitwood)

This is another endoparasitic nematode native to Ontario soils. It attacks almost all types of vegetable crops and many floral crops, particularly rose, African violet and geranium.

- Early larval stages are thread-like and invisible, while later stages and adults are peanut- to pearl-shaped and just visible when dissected from roots.
- This nematode invades roots and settles down to cause swellings, knots, or galls, and excessive root proliferation. Infested roots do not necessarily become discoloured unless attacked by bacteria and fungi.

Dagger Nematode, *Xiphinema diversicaudatum* (Micoletzky)

This ectoparasitic nematode is not native to Ontario and was introduced into greenhouses on plant stocks. Dagger nematodes prefer plants with woody roots and are more frequently associated with crops such as strawberry, grape and rose.

- The nematode survives in the root crotches of the understock.
- One of the largest nematodes attacking plants, this 6 mm, thread-like roundworm can, with care, be seen on the roots. It feeds on young roots from the soil, causing galls similar to root-knot galls but somewhat larger. These galls are actually curved swellings in the root tip

area, accentuated with the necrosis and shriveling of roots above the galls.

Pin Nematode, *Paratylenchus projectus* (Jenkins)

This nematode is native to Ontario and can attack many floral and vegetable greenhouse crops, especially rose. All stages of pin nematode are thread-like and invisible to the naked eye.

- This species is active in both fine-textured (clay) and coarse-textured (sandy) soils.

- The pin nematode does not enter roots but feeds at root tips by probing root hairs and surface cells. No specific root symptoms (such as galls or lesions) appear. Plants infested with this nematode show general above ground symptoms.

Southern Root-Knot Nematode, *Meloidogyne incognita* (Kofoid and White)

This endoparasitic nematode is not native to Ontario but has become persistent in the protected greenhouse environment. It cannot survive outdoors during winter. It is a problem on tomato and cucumber but can also attack several floral and foliage crops.

- Root damage and symptoms differ from those of the northern root-knot nematode. Plants damaged by the southern root-knot nematode have larger galls and lack fine root growths from the galls.

- Tomato leaves may show phosphorus deficiency (purpling) on the underside, or downward curling of leaf edges; affected tomato or cucumber plants wilt readily.

Foliar Nematodes

A few nematodes attack plant foliage. Symptoms caused by leaf-feeding nematodes are similar to those of several diseases and nutrient deficiencies.

Strawberry Bud Nematode, *Aphelenchoides fragariae* (Ritzema Bos)

This nematode is not native to Ontario, but was introduced on plant stock. It is primarily a problem on begonia but can attack other greenhouse ornamentals.

- Invisible and thread-like, it moves in moisture films on stems and leaves.

- It enters leaves through the stomata and feeds in the inner layers of the leaf, causing small brown spots with water-soaked margins on the underside of leaves. The spots subsequently enlarge and merge, turn dark brown, and become visible on the upper surface. Finally, the entire leaf is affected.

Chrysanthemum Nematode, *Aphelenchoides ritzema-bosi* (Shwartz)

This nematode is not native to Ontario but was introduced on plant stock. It is almost identical to the strawberry bud nematode and moves and infests plants in the same manner.

- Early symptoms include dark-brown spots on the underside of leaves and vein discoloration.

- Infested leaves eventually turn brown or black, forming distinct wedge-shaped areas between the veins. Finally, the leaves dry, shrivel and hang down along the stems.

The following are cultural control measures for minimizing nematode problems:

- Use soil-free media or steam-sterilized media.

- Ensure that transplants are vigorous and free of root galls or lesions.

- Use nematode-resistant or nematode-tolerant cultivars, or use nematode-resistant rootstocks where applicable.

- In soil-grown vegetable crops (e.g., tomato and cucumber), mound peat or sterile soil at the plant bases to stimulate adventitious root growth and help extend the productive life of the plants.

6. Integrated Disease Management

Proper integration of disease prevention practices into the total crop management plan is critical to the integrated plant health within any greenhouse production system and the profitability of any business.

The basic objectives of any program should be to achieve at least the following:

- Reduce the possibility of introducing diseases into the crop.
- Avoid creating conditions suitable for disease establishment and spread.

A sound disease management program for any greenhouse crop integrates a few universal principles and concepts into the overall production system for that particular greenhouse crop.

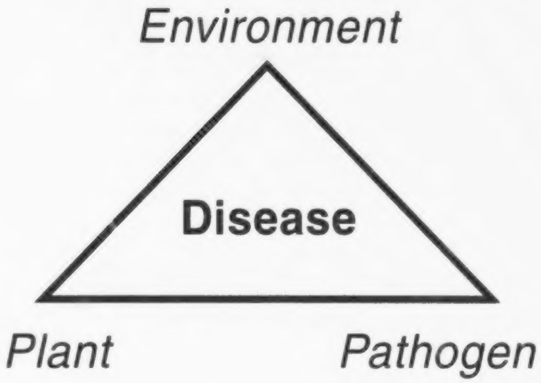
It is important to understand the concepts of disease control, and the strategies developed from them, to make modifications appropriate for a particular greenhouse or crop situation. A disease control program involves more than a fungicide spray or drench schedule for the various crops grown. Too often, fungicide applications address the symptoms, not the problem.

The Disease-Triangle Concept

Three factors are necessary for disease development:

- A pathogen or disease-causing organism (e.g., a fungus or a bacterium).
- A susceptible plant for the pathogen to infect.
- A suitable environment in which the first two will interact.

For example, *Thielaviopsis basicola* will attack poinsettia when air and media temperatures are cool (15°C–17°C), the media pH is high (above 6.5) and the sanitation is generally poor.



The environment includes both the soil or media environment in which the roots grow and the aboveground environment where shoots, leaves and flowers are produced.

Soil or media environment characteristics that must be considered include:

- pH
- nutrient levels and their balance
- EC
- moisture-holding capacity
- drainage
- oxygen content.

Aerial environment characteristics that must be considered include:

- light levels
- temperature
- air movement
- relative humidity
- air quality.

Six Principles for Plant Disease Control

Exclusion

- Preventing pathogens from becoming established in the greenhouse is a primary aspect of disease control. For example, geranium propagators use this principle each year when they purchase new virus-indexed/pathogen-free cuttings for stock plant production. This minimizes the potential for fungal and bacterial infections such as geranium rust or bacterial wilt.

- Growers who use soil or compost in their media pasteurize the material to eliminate soil-borne pathogens. Using new clean pots, cell packs and flats helps prevent potential infections in newly planted crops.

Avoidance

- This involves using common-sense practices to avoid situations that promote disease development. For example, do not use overhead watering late in the day, which creates conditions favourable for the development of *Botrytis.*

Resistance

- This involves the inherent ability of a host plant to remain healthy or resist attack, even though a pathogen is present and/or the environment is conducive to pathogen development. For example, most new tomato cultivars are being developed with genetic resistance to *Fusarium* crown and root rot.

Protection/Prevention

- Systemic fungicides can be applied before any disease is observed. These often protect crops during periods when conditions are conducive to disease development.

- For example, application of a fungicide such as Decree at the end of the poinsettia crop can protect the bracts from *Botrytis* infections, and routine media drenching of cyclamen crops can protect against *Fusarium* crown rot.

Eradication

- Plant pathogens can be eliminated via several means, such as steam pasteurization of ground beds or rockwool slabs, to eliminate root-borne diseases and nematodes. Sanitizing products such as chlorine bleach or quaternary ammonium chloride compounds can effectively control bacteria or fungal spores in dust or on surfaces of benches, in/on irrigation lines and emitters, and on tools used for propagation or production.

- Plant breeders and primary propagators routinely index and tissue-culture vegetatively propagated plants to eliminate potential plant-infecting bacteria and viruses.

Therapy

Treat infected plants to prevent further sporulation and spread of the fungus. For example, Meltatox is sprayed on rose foliage to kill the mycelium of the powdery mildew fungus.

Basic Integrated Disease Control Strategies

Environmental Manipulation

Environmental manipulation includes not only air temperature and relative humidity but also media composition, pH, EC, plant temperature, light levels and air circulation.

- Know and understand the conditions required for the optimum growth of the crop and for the common diseases of that crop.

- Avoid extremes or, more importantly, rapid changes in relative humidity. This minimizes the time period and conditions suitable for *Botrytis* or powdery/downy mildew to develop.

- Be aware that temperatures of leaf surfaces are lower in plastic houses than in glass houses because of greater heat loss due to far-red radiation.

- Avoid poor air circulation within the greenhouse. This can cause uneven temperatures throughout the crop. It can also lead to free moisture forming on the plants, particularly at night, creating ideal conditions for mildew and *Botrytis* infections.

- Avoid *all* extremes, as much as possible, for the crops. For example, the combination of high temperature and over-fertilization promotes *Fusarium* crown and root rot in cyclamen, while the combination of high temperature and high relative humidity is favourable to *Rhizoctonia* attacking cuttings during or just after propagation. Also avoid low temperatures to prevent outbreaks of *Pythium* in warm-temperature crops.

Modification of Cultural Practices

Chronically stressing plants makes them more susceptible to attack by disease pathogens. Plants are stressed when the root and/or shoot environments are neglected.

- Understand the growing requirements of the crops being produced. Not all crops will tolerate the same conditions. For example, Easter lily and primula require very different root management; lily roots cannot tolerate being overly wet and starved for oxygen.

- Monitor the media or substrate pH and EC every week.

- Avoid fertilization when soluble salts are high. The definition of "high salts" varies with the crop and its stage of development. High salts damage root hairs and young roots. These wound sites become entry points for disease pathogens.

- Use clean containers and porous, well-draining media to minimize the potential for pathogens such as *Pythium* and *Phytophthora*.

- If foliar diseases are an ongoing problem, review temperature, relative humidity, air circulation patterns and watering practices. Often, by maintaining higher night temperatures or higher minimum pipe temperatures, the incidence of foliar diseases can be lessened.

Sanitation and Roguing

Sanitation is the first step in any disease management program. If a source of infection or infestation is constantly present due to poor hygiene, disease management programs will be expensive and frustrating. Carry out good sanitation practices as the first line of defence in the greenhouse and adjoining structures (boiler rooms, etc.), in the immediate vicinity of the greenhouse, and during every stage of crop production.

Proper greenhouse sanitation is a continual, year-round process. **Cleanliness on its own may not totally control pest problems, but it is a basic component of any control program**. It is important to:

- Use footbaths between different greenhouse compartments, particularly between propagation or stock plant areas. Routine maintenance of these footbaths is essential. Follow the label of the product being used. Household bleach is not recommended for this purpose.

- Remove dead and dying plants, leaves and flowers as detected. In geraniums, removing and disposing of all flowers away from the greenhouse plays a significant role in reducing the incidence of *Botrytis*. Do not leave diseased plants under benches.

- Place rogued plants with difficult to control diseases in commercial garbage containers and dispose of them in a landfill to reduce potential sources of inoculum.

- Dedicate wheelbarrows or soil carts used to discard diseased material strictly for disposal purposes. If this is not possible, disinfect after every use.

- Have employees wear disposable gloves when handling diseased plant material. Otherwise, employees should wash their hands thoroughly with soap or bactericidal hand lotion before performing another function. They should also wash their hands between cultivars when taking cuttings.

- Store normal crop residues well away and downwind from the greenhouse to prevent particles of media or plant tissue from being blown or sucked into the greenhouse. Preferably cover plant residues or, alternatively, move residues off-site on a routine basis.

- Keep walks and the surfaces of benches clean.

- Carefully check both the foliage and roots for disease when bringing new vegetative cuttings into the greenhouse for stock plant production. It is advisable to isolate new plant material initially.

- Avoid overwintering garden or houseplants in the greenhouse. They may act as the source of disease.

- Maintain good drainage to eliminate puddles and wet surfaces, as these provide ideal breeding sites for fungus gnats and shoreflies. These insect pests are a possible source of infection for root diseases such as *Pythium* and *Fusarium*.

- Keep the greenhouse free of weeds that may harbour diseases like impatiens necrotic spot virus/tomato spotted wilt virus (INSV/TSWV) or insects that can be vectors of disease.

- For soil-grown crops steam soil before planting winter crops to minimize the carryover of root and crown rot pathogens.

- Steam traditional propagating benches regularly.

- Disinfect propagating benches and trays before propagating and between each round of rooting to eliminate bacteria and fungi.

- Use expanded metal benches for easy cleaning and to minimize the spread and survival of pathogens during propagation.

- Sweep or vacuum bench surfaces before sanitizing to ensure the best possible efficacy of sanitizer. If necessary wash down benches and walls with horticultural detergents to remove algae before sanitizing.

- Empty and sanitize tanks used to hold recirculated nutrient solution at the same time as concrete floors or troughs to prevent recontamination of the production areas.

- Dip cutting knives in 70% alcohol between cultivars to prevent the spread of disease.

- Between crops, perform a general disinfection of the greenhouse structure (walls), heating pipes, walks, benches or equipment. For some production systems this is not always possible.

Disinfectants

These products provide an important role in the prevention and control of fungal and viral pathogens within the greenhouse. There are a number of products available:

- *Agribrom* can be used to control microbial slimes in greenhouse evaporative cooling systems and to control algae and microbial slimes in irrigation systems. Maintenance of desired levels in automatic irrigation systems even when using a brominator has proven difficult for most growers.

- *Chlorine bleach* at a concentration of 0.5%–1% final solution of sodium hypochlorite is generally recommended. Mix 1 part common household bleach with 9 parts water. Chlorine is effective, but rapidly volatilizes when mixed in water with the strength reduced by 50% in two hours. Chlorine fumes can be harmful to plants so if plants are present in adjacent areas, ensure adequate ventilation. Organic matter very quickly inactivates the chlorine. Be aware that residual chlorine can be released from surfaces when rewetted if rapid drying has occurred.

- *Horti-Klor* is a chlorinated cleaner or detergent that can be used initially to remove algae and plant residue from packing equipment. Follow manufacturer's directions.

- *Chemprocide* is a quaternary ammonium chloride compound with broad fungicidal and bactericidal activity recommended for general surface disinfection and for foot baths.

- *Floralife D.C.D.* is a quaternary ammonium chloride compound with fungicidal and bactericidal activity. Surfaces should be pre-cleaned prior to disinfection. Surfaces should remain wet for 10 minutes.

- *Virkon* is a disinfectant with fungicidal, bactericidal and virucidal activity.

- Quaternary ammonium chloride compounds are quite stable because the chlorine is not volatile, but they disinfect in a way similar to chlorine bleach. As with bleach, contact with any type of organic matter will inactivate the disinfectant. Thus, it is very important to remove as much organic matter as possible prior to application.

Pathogen-Free Plant Material

Purchase cuttings from specialized propagators or from plant breeders to minimize the chance of introducing diseases into a greenhouse operation.

- If possible, isolate new plant material to reduce the potential for contamination.

- Change stock plants regularly. This may mean quarterly or every 6 months, depending on the crop.

- Don't bring in clean stock until the old has been moved out and the area thoroughly sanitized. Alternatively, isolate the clean stock in a separate area.

Vector Control

Many viruses and viroids are spread by insects. For example, aphids spread Aster Yellows in chrysanthemum while TSWV/INSV is transmitted by western flower thrips.

- Consider using screening on open cooling vents to block many insect pests from the greenhouse. This makes control of the insect population easier.

- Fungus gnats are now known to spread the spores of *Pythium.* The larvae damage young roots through feeding activity. Research has shown that *Pythium* oospores (thick-walled sexual spores) are routinely transmitted through the gut of fungus gnat larvae. As well, the adult can transfer the pathogen with its legs and mouthparts.

- Controlling algae growth and providing adequate drainage under benches helps control insect populations and minimize the spread of disease pathogens.

Host Plant Resistance

Some cultivars of crops are less susceptible to certain diseases than others. Plant breeders are beginning to use gene manipulation to introduce disease resistance into crops.

Chemical Control

Fungicides have been the conventional approach to disease control. The role of fungicides can vary from protecting healthy plants to treating infected plants and eradicating diseases. Rotation of fungicides with different modes of action is necessary to reduce the likelihood of resistance development.

We will need to rely less on fungicides in the future. Fewer effective fungicides will be available, and environmental contamination concerns will increase.

Biological Control

Biological disease control involves the use of fungi and bacteria that strongly suppress disease-causing organisms and diseases without harming the crop. Mechanisms of action include competition, antibiosis, parasitism or induced resistance. Most biocontrol products should be considered preventative and their use started with the planting of a crop.

Three microbial fungicides, **Mycostop, Sporodex and Rootshield,** have been registered recently in Canada for use on greenhouse crops. Mycostop is registered for the control of damping off, root and stem rot, and wilt caused by *Fusarium*. The soil bacterium *Streptomyces griseovirdis* K61is the active ingredient and uses hyperparasitism and antibiotic production as its modes of action. Because the effect is preventive, drench Mycostop immediately after potting and repeat the treatment every 3–6 weeks depending on disease pressure.

Rootshield is registered for suppression of *Fusarium, Pythium* and *Rhizoctonia* on all ornamental crops. It provides protection by colonizing the surface of the roots and root rhizophere through the utilization of waste products produced during normal root growth. It also parasitizes disease-causing fungi through the release of enzymes that cause breakdown of their cell walls. The product should be applied soon after germination or rooting or sticking of vegetative cuttings. Two formulations are available; a granular formulation that can be incorporated into the growing media or a drench to be applied to newly transplanted seedlings or cuttings.

Sporodex received registration for use on greenhouse cucumber and rose for the control of powdery mildew, but as of printing is not yet commercially available. Sporodex is a liquid suspension of spores of the fungus *Pseudozyma flocculosa,* which acts as a strong antagonist of mildew species. Studies suggest that it produces antibiotics that interfere with cell membranes. Application of Sporodex should begin as powdery mildew begins to appear and should be done weekly. It works best at 25°C and when the relative humidity is above 70%, suggesting application should be made as late in the day as possible or on cloudy, rainy days. Use a wetting agent.

Researchers at the University of Guelph are studying another biocontrol agent, *Gliocladium roseum,* for control of *Botrytis.* Selected strains have been shown to be effective on a wide range of greenhouse crops but have yet to be registered.

As with pesticides, biocontrols are not a universal panacea for disease control. Biocontrol agents will not replace good crop management strategies.

Success Criteria

- Emphasize prevention rather than cure. This is critical when crops are being grown in closed sub-irrigation systems.
- Monitor crops weekly or (at the least) biweekly.
- Walking the crop(s) is essential to early detection. This means checking the crop foliage and root systems and both manual and computer-controlled environment conditions.
- As a grower/manager, keep detailed records that enable merging of cultural, environmental, and insect and disease data for analysis.
- Include weather data to help anticipate potential disease problems. For example, a cool, cloudy and wet summer with the central heating system off creates ideal conditions for downy mildew development. Poinsettia propagators can anticipate slow, uneven rooting and increased *Botrytis* rot without supplementary heating.
- The worker in charge of monitoring cannot work in a void, and must work closely with the person responsible for overall crop scheduling. The person in charge of growing should be the one who monitors for disease

and environmental control. In many operations, this should be done by an employee, not by the owner/grower.

- Correct diagnosis is crucial. Without correctly identifying the pathogen, control using cultural or chemical strategies is impossible. Soil-borne fungi are the most difficult pathogen for growers to identify. Send samples to the Pest Diagnostic Clinic, University of Guelph, for accurate diagnosis. See Appendix B for further details. For some diseases, ELISA disease diagnostic kits for grower use are available from companies such as Agdia.

- Develop a thorough understanding of the diseases that affect the crops being grown. Correct use and timing of management strategies then becomes part of an ongoing process.

- Because disease pathogens are microscopic, learn to anticipate when possible pathogen infection periods are likely to occur. By the time the problem is visible, the pathogen has usually been present for some time and is more difficult to control.

7. Major Greenhouse Diseases

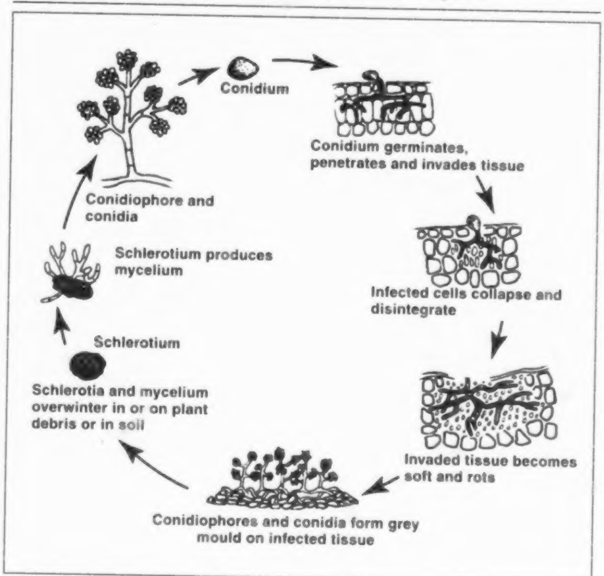
Fungus Diseases

Botrytis (Grey Mould)

The fungus, known as *Botrytis cinerea,* causes many common diseases of greenhouse ornamental and vegetable crops. "Grey mould" is often used to describe the disease because of the prolific sporulation of grey or brown spores that occurs on infected tissues under appropriate conditions.

- *Botrytis* disease symptoms appear as flower spotting and blight, leaf blights, stem cankers, and corm or bulb rots.
- Infections occur when germinating conidia (spores) penetrate healthy succulent leaf or flower tissue, stomata, or wounds, or when pieces of fungal mycelium grow on dead or dying plant tissue in contact with healthy host tissue. See Figure 7–1, *Botrytis Life Cycle.*
- *Botrytis* readily attacks healthy or senescing soft, nutrient-rich flower or bract tissues of cyclamen, geranium, rose, or poinsettia. Mycelial infections typically occur when infected flowers or leaves fall onto healthy tissues below and become appressed to wet leaf surfaces.
- Latent infections occur as described above but show no visible symptoms because of unfavourable environmental conditions. When environmental conditions change, symptoms may appear. This typically occurs with cut flowers, which appear healthy when packed but have tan-brown spots on the petals when unpacked.
- *Botrytis* is ubiquitous — the spores are always present. The conidia disperse very readily in air currents and in/on water droplets. Fluctuating relative humidity levels trigger the release of spores. Spore germination can occur in less than 3 hours, with sporulation occurring in 8 hours.
- *Botrytis* infections usually occur during cool, wet, or humid weather conditions, which favour infection and sporulation. Free moisture containing dissolved nutrients acts with temperature to determine the initial infection and subsequent lesion development.

FIGURE 7–1. Botrytis Life Cycle


Conidium
Conidium germinates, penetrates and invades tissue
Infected cells collapse and disintegrate
Invaded tissue becomes soft and rots
Conidiophores and conidia form grey mould on infected tissue
Schlerotia and mycelium overwinter in or on plant debris or in soil
Schlerotium
Schlerotium produces mycelium
Conidiophore and conidia

Disease Control

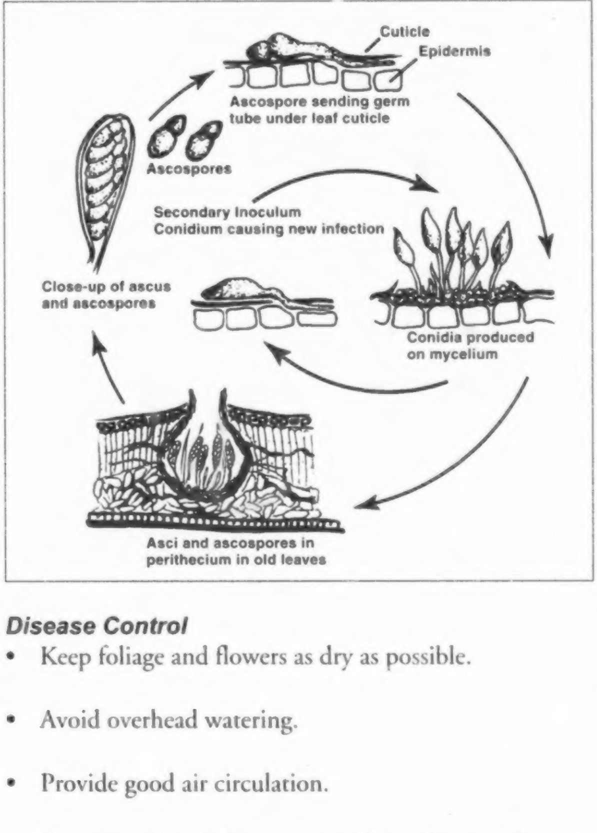
- *Botrytis* is often considered a "disease of bad management."
- Control it with crop management techniques and manipulation of the greenhouse environment. For example, reduce the relative humidity by maintaining warmer night temperatures and proper ventilation practices.
- Use computer-controlled humidity monitoring programs.
- Air circulation is critical for maintaining dry plant surfaces and usually depends on proper plant spacing. It helps to open plant canopies by removing excessive foliage.
- Sanitation before and during crop production is essential. Remove senescing flowers and leaves.
- Avoid overhead watering wherever possible. When overhead watering is necessary, water early in the day to allow foliage and canopy to dry before evening.

Fungal Leaf Spots, Flower Spots and Blights

All of these diseases are caused by fungi, with symptoms varying greatly. See Figure 7–2, *Leaf Spot Disease Life Cycle*.

- Blights or spots can appear on leaves, stems or flowers depending on the organism present. Many attack all three plant parts, but none attacks the roots or crown.
- Leaf blights and spots usually appear on the lower foliage and work their way up through the plant canopy. Many of the pathogens produce characteristic spots or lesions, such as "bull's-eye" spots with a reddish border or tan-coloured spots with concentric rings. Spots may be circular, angular or irregular.
- The more common fungi-causing leaf spots include *Alternaria, Ascochyta, Cercospora, Phyllosticta, Gloesporium,* and *Septoria*. Most produce abundant conidia. Spores of these fungi are wind-borne and can be splashed about when watering.
- Leaves must be wet for infection to occur.

FIGURE 7–2. Leaf Spot Disease Life Cycle


Cuticle
Epidermis
Ascospore sending germ tube under leaf cuticle
Ascospores
Secondary Inoculum
Conidium causing new infection
Close-up of ascus and ascospores
Conidia produced on mycelium
Asci and ascospores in perithecium in old leaves

Disease Control

- Keep foliage and flowers as dry as possible.
- Avoid overhead watering.
- Provide good air circulation.
- Remove infected plant material from the greenhouse.
- Use disease-free propagating material.

Powdery Mildews

These common fungal diseases cause an easily recognized white powdery growth on leaves, stems and floral parts of infected plants, quickly making plants unmarketable. Several species including *Erysiphe, Leveillula* and *Sphaerotheca* are involved. Thus, the fungus that causes powdery mildew on one crop generally doesn't affect another. Because powdery mildews are obligate parasites, they require living plants for completion of their life cycle.

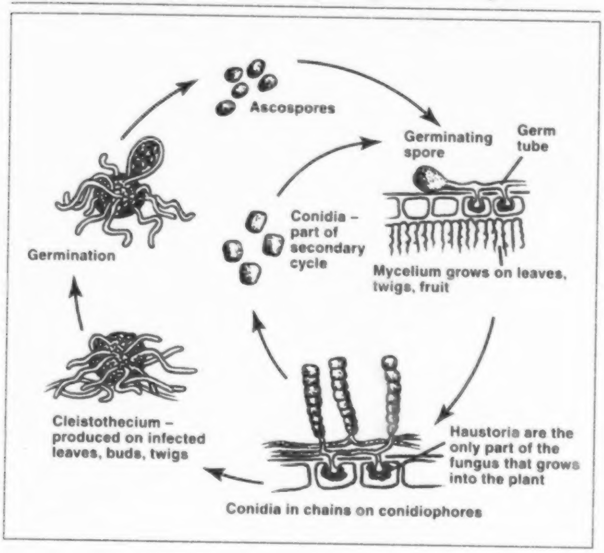
- Growth may begin as small, discrete spots but can spread to cover the entire upper surface of the leaves. On many plants, the fungal growth becomes felt-like. This happens when ideal conditions produce abundant superficial mycelia bearing many colourless conidia (spores). In some plants, the leaves develop a reddish discoloration where the infection occurred.
- Severe infections will cause leaf stunting, yellowing and curling.
- In the greenhouse, powdery mildew fungi have a simple life cycle. Single-celled conidia form in a long chain on short, erect fungal stalks. See Figure 7–3, *Powdery Mildew Life Cycle*. This creates the "fluffiness" usually associated with powdery mildew. Under favourable environmental conditions, conidia chains are produced and released; usually one conidium/day or diurnal cycle. Conidia mature and are ready for release in 24 hours. A relative-humidity drop and the heating/drying effect of solar radiation promote spore release.
- Conidia need relative humidity of 95% or more, for 3–4 hours, to germinate and penetrate the host's leaf or stem epidermal cells. The conidia produce nutrient pegs, which provide a constant nutrient supply for fungal growth. The fungal mycelium grows only on the leaf surface, regularly producing nutrient pegs and conidial stalks. Within 48 hours of inoculation, mature conidia can release to infect other leaves or plants.
- Relative humidity, temperature, light, leaf wetness and air movement affect the severity and spread of powdery mildew infections. Because of these interrelated environmental factors, use an integrated approach.
- Excessive and turbulent air movements, such as drafts near open doors, promote infection and spread.

- The powdery mildews attacking greenhouse crops need near 100% relative humidity or a near-zero vapour-pressure deficit to germinate.

- Leaf wetness episodes promote fungal development.

- The occurrence and persistence of leaf wetness are affected by leaf-to-air temperature gradients, the degree of leaf radiant energy loss, solar radiation and leaf transpiration.

FIGURE 7–3. Powdery Mildew Life Cycle


Ascospores
Germinating spore
Germ tube
Conidia – part of secondary cycle
Mycelium grows on leaves, twigs, fruit
Germination
Cleistothecium – produced on infected leaves, buds, twigs
Haustoria are the only part of the fungus that grows into the plant
Conidia in chains on conidiophores

Disease Control

- Avoid drafts by keeping walkway doors closed. Automate the opening and closing of doors if possible.

- Maintain smooth air-flow patterns over leaf surfaces. This prevents localized high relative-humidity areas and reduces air and leaf temperature fluctuations.

- Use a humidity-control program. Establish reasonable parameters and use an environmental computer to maintain the desired relative-humidity levels through ventilation and heating. Avoid sudden changes in either temperature or relative humidity due to venting. High relative humidity on its own does not necessarily promote powdery mildew.

- Rely on the radiant heat from both the crop-zone and top heating lines to maintain a drier, warmer crop environment.

- Close shading/energy curtains and/or use high pressure sodium lighting during the night to help prevent radiant energy loss from leaf surfaces by keeping leaf surfaces warmer.

Downy Mildews

These *Peronospora* fungi are primarily foliage blights. They attack and spread rapidly in young, green tissues, affecting foliage, stems and flower buds of rose, snapdragon and viola.

- Their development and spread depend on the presence of water films on the plant tissues and on high relative humidity during cool periods (but not during hot periods).

- Rose leaves develop purplish-red spots on upper leaf surfaces. They may be distorted, have symptoms typical of pesticide phytotoxicity, turn yellow and abscise in great numbers.

- Snapdragon foliage becomes distorted. If infection occurs in the seedling stage, it quickly becomes systemic and infects the growing tip or developing flower spike. Losses are severe.

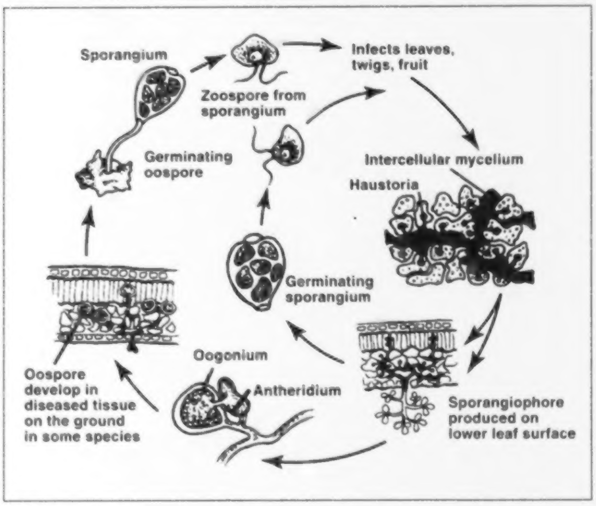
- Downy mildew differs from powdery mildew in that the spores are produced on the undersurface of the leaves. Depending on environmental conditions and the downy mildew species, the number of spores produced can vary significantly.

- Downy mildew of snapdragons produces masses of grey-brown spores that look like thick velvet.

- Rose downy mildew produces very few visible spores unless optimal conditions exist.

- Sexual reproduction causes oospore production, which carries the fungus through periods unfavourable for vegetative growth. See Figure 7–4, *Downy Mildew Life Cycle.*

FIGURE 7–4. Downy Mildew Life Cycle


Sporangium
Infects leaves, twigs, fruit
Zoospore from sporangium
Germinating oospore
Intercellular mycelium
Haustoria
Germinating sporangium
Oogonium
Antheridium
Oospore develop in diseased tissue on the ground in some species
Sporangiophore produced on lower leaf surface

Disease Control

- Most control comes from proper environmental manipulation. Ensure adequate air movement within the greenhouse.

- Control the relative humidity and temperature fluctuations to prevent moisture condensation on the plants. This may mean increasing the night temperature to reduce the radiant energy loss from leaf surfaces. Air and leaf temperatures should be similar.

- Balance heating and ventilation.

- Avoid wetting the foliage when irrigating.

- Clean up all crop debris and infected plants and remove everything from the greenhouse, as the organism survives between crops on dead plant material.

- Many epidemics begin during cool, damp weather, affecting growers who don't have a computer-controlled heating system, who attempt to economize on fuel consumption by adopting low temperature set points, or who have the heating system off during the late spring or early fall periods.

Wilts

- Wilt diseases cause a whole plant, a portion of a plant or a major branch to wilt. Other symptoms include vascular discoloration, stunting and varying degrees of leaf yellowing. Infectious wilts divide into two broad categories:
  - Fungal, caused by *Fusarium solani, Fusarium oxysporum* and *Verticillium albo-atrum.*
  - Bacterial, caused by *Erwinia chrysanthemumi, Erwinia carotovora, Xanthomonas campestris* and *Pseudomonas solanacearum.*

- Most fungal wilt pathogens are soil-borne, attacking through roots or the crown area.

- Root hairs and root tips exude nutrient-rich compounds like proteins into the media. These are the first nutrient source for potential pathogens. Bacterial pathogens also need a wound or natural opening (such as stomata or hydathodes of leaves) for invasion.

- Fungal wilt pathogen growth is limited to the vascular tissue, while bacterial pathogens spread rapidly into adjacent tissues. Both groups of pathogens can be carried in the stems of symptomless cuttings.

- Symptoms of *Fusarium* and *Verticillium* are almost identical in some plants, and can be accurately identified only through laboratory examination. These pathogens plug the xylem vessels, interfering with the translocation of water and nutrients. Symptoms include wilting, marginal necrosis and yellowing (and eventually browning) of older leaves. Plants are usually stunted, and bloom production is reduced. Plants usually die, particularly from an early infection. The vascular tissue usually has a brownish or reddish-brown discoloration.

- Many weeks can pass between the initial infection and the appearance of symptoms.

- *Fusarium* can cause stem and crown rots that result in wilting and collapse. The dark-brown to black lesions develop on the stem at, or just below, the soil line, with the leading edge being often pinkish or reddish. Infection occurs inward — there is usually no external stem discoloration.

- *Fusarium* is a very common pathogen of a wide range of greenhouse crops. *Verticillium* is much less common, and usually attacks only chrysanthemum, aster and dahlia.

- The fungal pathogens persist for long periods as thick-walled resting spores in soil or plant debris. The spores form when plant tissue begins to dry up.

- Host plant stress makes plants susceptible to a fungal wilt pathogen attack and strongly influences attack severity. Stress can include high or low air/media temperatures, or improper watering, nutrition, media pH, or EC.

- With bacterial wilt infections, wilting of entire leaves or leaf margins is the first symptom. Infections become systemic very quickly, moving through the leaf veins and petioles. Entire leaves yellow or develop large, V-shaped yellow lesions. When bacteria invade the stems, the outside of the stem usually appears grey-black and water-soaked, while the internal stem tissue appears black.

- Bacterial disease development is enhanced by high air and media temperature and by high relative humidity.

- Bacteria survive only in living or decaying plant material. For more details on bacterial diseases, see Bacterial Diseases on page 76.

- Pathogen spread during the propagation process is very common. Both fungal and bacterial pathogens are spread by water movement through media, splashing, and the physical movement of infected media and plant material within and between greenhouse operations.

Disease Control

- Use pathogen-free cuttings and seeds.

- Remove and destroy all infected plants.

- Sanitize benches, used trays and pots.

- Thoroughly pasteurize beds for soil-grown crops.

- Maintain good horticultural practices.

Damping-off of Seedlings

Rhizoctonia solani, *Pythium* and *Phytophthora* are the primary causes of this disease, which attacks germinating seeds and seedlings. See Figure 7–5, *Disease Cycle of Damping-off and Seed Decay*. However *Fusarium*, *Botrytis* and *Sclerotinia* are occasionally responsible.

Pre-Emergence Damping-Off

- Pre-emergence damping-off kills seeds during germination, or soon after. The young plants never emerge from the media. Growers often mistakenly blame this loss on poor seed.

Post-Emergence Damping-Off

- Most growers are familiar with post-emergence damping-off. Typically, the stem is invaded at or near the soil surface. The seedling wilts or stunts, the stem collapses, and the plant topples over. Other variations of post-emergence damping-off include top rot or top damping-off, and root rot.

Wire-Stem Damping-Off

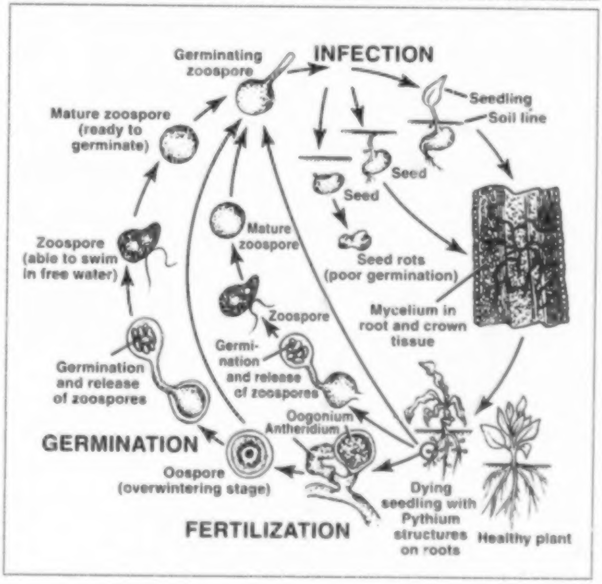
- Wire-stem damping-off is usually associated with older seedlings that have been hardened off. Stems are partially girdled with dry, black lesions and a wire-like appearance. Infected plants are stunted and eventually die.

Rhizoctonia usually spreads in a circular pattern in a seedling tray, and often fine grey-brown strands of mycelium are visible on the surface of the growing media.

Water moulds like *Pythium* and *Phytophthora* can attack seeds but commonly induce rot from the tips of the young roots. This is most severe at high moisture levels.

Wet media, poor sanitation, poor ventilation, high humidity, cool temperature and thick stands of seedlings are ideal conditions for damping-off fungi.

FIGURE 7–5. Disease Cycle of Damping-off and Seed Decay


Germinating zoospore
INFECTION
Seedling
Soil line
Mature zoospore (ready to germinate)
Seed
Seed
Mature zoospore
Seed rots (poor germination)
Zoospore (able to swim in free water)
Zoospore
Mycelium in root and crown tissue
Germi-nation and release of zoospores
Germination and release of zoospores
Oogonium
Antheridium
GERMINATION
Oospore (overwintering stage)
Dying seedling with Pythium structures on roots
Healthy plant
FERTILIZATION

Disease Control

- Sanitation is important. These pathogens can spread due to dirty seedling trays, infested media and dirty tools. Remove all infected seedling trays.

- Splashing water will spread the organisms.

- Use only new flats or plug trays for disease-susceptible crops.

- Use a porous, well-drained seedling mix.

- Maintain proper temperatures throughout the various phases of seedling germination and growing on.

- Don't contaminate media used for seeding with dust or used media.

- Reduce misting as soon as possible after seedling emergence.

Crown and Root Rots

The fungi that most commonly cause crown and root rots are, in order of importance, *Pythium*, *Rhizoctonia*, *Phytophthora*, *Fusarium*, *Thielaviopsis* and *Sclerotinia*.

- Crown and root rot fungi are soil-inhabiting pathogens. These rots constantly threaten the commercial greenhouse grower. Note that each of these disease-causing fungi has unique environmental needs.

- "Root rot" is a general term for the killing and then rotting of roots by various fungi. Root rot begins when the cortical roots become dysfunctional. They appear water-soaked and have a brown to black discoloration. New root development is reduced. As the rot progresses, the leaves become yellow and stunted; eventually they wilt.

- Root rots debilitate individual plants and groups of plants. They compromise crop uniformity and often cause symptoms of nutritional imbalance. This is a serious issue with crops being grown in closed sub-irrigation systems.

- Root pathogens are more difficult to diagnose visually than most foliar diseases.

Disease Control

- All fungal root rot pathogens can survive in growing media or on infested tissues as mycelium or spores. They can also exist in the soil as *oospores*, *chlamydospores* or *sclerotia*, (resting structures) with thick cell walls and remain viable for long time periods. When they contact roots of a susceptible host, they become active (germinate) and begin infecting root tissues. Completely eliminating the inoculum source is difficult, so preventing their activity is the key to control.

- All root rot fungi can be spread by splashing water and irrigation water. Fungi can also be carried over in contaminated media, soil under benches, infested plant residues, dirty containers, blowing dust, used capillary mats and recirculated irrigation water.

- Healthy plants resist root rot infection.

- Crop stress is the leading environmental cause of crown and root rots, predisposing plants to attack. Factors contributing to crop stress include fertility level, EC, media pH, watering practices, temperature, light level, and pesticide and growth-retardant application. Each root pathogen has a different optimum temperature, pH and moisture requirement.

- Irrigation water from storage ponds collected from run-off may contain root rot pathogens.

- Most artificial media are considered pathogen-free, and have few naturally occurring fungi or bacteria to act as suppressive agents.

Pythium

Pythium is the most common greenhouse root rot pathogen. It causes the roots and crowns of many plants to rot.

- Symptoms vary with the age and development stage of the affected plant. Older-plant infections are usually limited to roots and root hairs. Infected roots are often soft, mushy and various shades of brown.

- The rot begins as water-soaked brown rot of the root tips and cortex. Usually the cortex sloughs off, leaving the vascular cylinder (which remains thread-like). Lesions can occur on crowns of more succulent crops such as gloxinia.

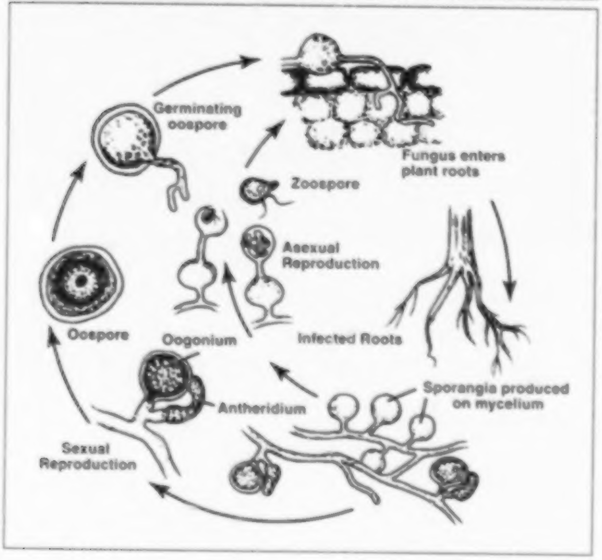
- Above ground symptoms include stunting, wilting and yellowing due to nutrient and water deficiencies.

- *Pythium* spores germinate in response to root exudates. These provide food until the white, slender, profusely branching and rapidly growing mycelium penetrates the roots. See Figure 7–6, *Pythium Root Rot Life Cycle.*

- *Pythium*, depending on the species, quickly produces two types of spores:
  - Asexual zoospores, which, when released, can swim in films of water until they contact healthy host tissue. There they geminate and start a new infection.
  - Sexual oospores, which are thick-walled and resist both high and low temperatures.

- Regardless of species, movement of the spores within a greenhouse is rapid because of the irrigation typically used.

FIGURE 7–6. Pythium Root Rot Life Cycle


Germinating oospore
Fungus enters plant roots
Zoospore
Asexual Reproduction
Oospore
Oogonium
Infected Roots
Sporangia produced on mycelium
Antheridium
Sexual Reproduction

Disease Control

- *Pythium* infections are most common at temperatures below 18°C.

- Maintain temperatures favourable for plant growth.

- Avoid overwatering when the crop is young or is not growing actively.

- Use a porous, well-drained media.

- Check regularly for high salts.

- Don't fertilize with excess nitrogen.

- Monitor fungus gnat populations. Both fungus gnat larvae and adults can spread the pathogen.

Rhizoctonia

Rhizoctonia is commonly associated with damping-off but can also occur in rooted cuttings and well-established plants.

- The symptoms vary with the host and development stage but generally cause reddish-brown lesions on the below ground stem and roots of infected plants. Under favourable conditions, the lesions increase in size and number to include the whole base of the plant. Figure 7–7, *Rhizoctonia Life Cycle.*

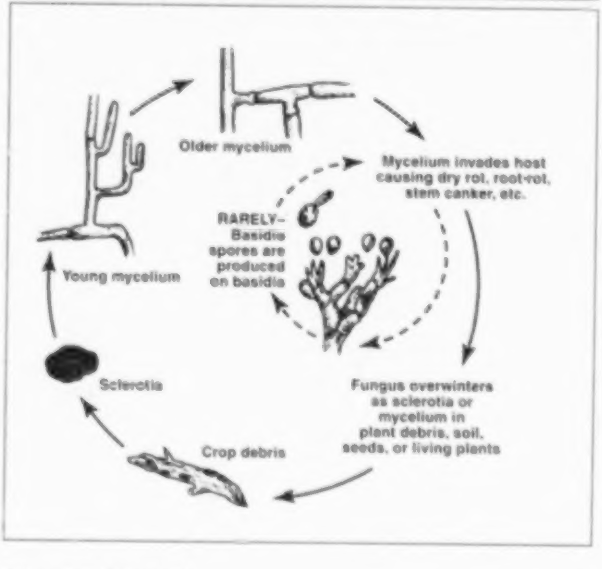
- This pathogen is slow to girdle the crown and root area of established plants. As a result, the grower may not observe plants wilting or appearing stunted until long after the initial infection.

- Lower leaves of infected plants usually yellow, and plants may break off at the soil line.

- On fleshy, succulent stems, bulbs, and corms, the brown or black sunken lesions are often dry.

- Stem cankers can occur on lower branches where infested media have been splashed.

FIGURE 7–7. *Rhizoctonia* Life Cycle


Older mycelium
Mycelium invades host causing dry rot, root-rot, stem canker, etc.
RARELY– Basidia spores are produced on basidia
Young mycelium
Sclerotia
Crop debris
Fungus overwinters as sclerotia or mycelium in plant debris, soil, seeds, or living plants

Disease Control

- High media and air temperatures and high relative humidity promote *Rhizoctonia* in most greenhouse crops.

- Wet/dry extremes in the growing media will enhance Rhizoctonia development.

Phytophthora

Phytophthora causes root and crown rots similar to *Pythium* but occurs most often during the summer growing period.

- Like *Pythium,* it is a water mould — the asexual spores and mycelium spread quickly in films of water.
- Typical symptoms include necrotic brown to black lesions on larger roots and many small dead roots. Basal cankers with black streaking often appear.

Disease Control

- Avoid overwatering when the crop is young or is not growing actively.
- Use a porous, well-drained media.
- Avoid media temperatures above 26°C.

Fusarium

Several *Fusarium* species cause stems, crowns, corms, bulbs and tubers to rot. The primary culprits are *F. solani* and *F. oxysporum.*

- With root rots, the infected tissue is usually dark red to brown and may appear as streaks up to the soil line. Plant growth is usually retarded. As infection increases, the oldest leaves begin to yellow, and younger leaves become flaccid.
- In stem rots affecting plants such as chrysanthemum and carnation, the infected plants wilt and die from a stem rot at the base of the plant.
- The lesions that develop at or just below the soil line often have pink or red edges leading to the infections. The lesions develop inward. There is usually no external stem discoloration.
- Bulb and corm rots can occur in the field and in storage. The rot usually begins at a wound or at the base of these organs and may not produce visible symptoms. However, the basal plate and fleshy scales will be brown and decaying, with mats of mycelium. The foliage often turns purple or yellow and dies prematurely.

Disease Control

- Crop stress, the leading environmental cause of *Fusarium* disease, predisposes plants to attack by this fungus. Standard disease control strategies apply. Review production practices and modify them as needed to minimize crop stress.
- Maintain proper temperatures, avoiding hot and cold extremes.
- Irrigate consistently. Wet/dry extremes enhance *Fusarium* development.
- Use appropriate media.
- Pasteurize the soil for effective control in soil-grown crops.
- Use healthy, disease-free stock for vegetative propagation purposes.

Thielaviopsis basicola

- *Thielaviopsis basicola* causes a severe, black root rot of several major greenhouse flower crops. These include cyclamen, fuchsia, geranium, kalanchoe, primula, petunia, pansy, poinsettia and vinca.
- Infected roots usually have black lesions covering all or part of the root.
- Plants usually appear stunted, with yellow or white leaves typical of a severe nutritional deficiency. The roots die rapidly, causing plant death.

Disease Control

- *Thielaviopsis* thrives with high media moisture and a high pH.
- Avoid temperatures too high or too low for the crop. For example, do not grow vinca below 20°C.
- Avoid high ammonium nitrogen fertilization, which promotes a *Thielaviopsis* attack.
- Maintain good sanitation.
- *Thielaviopsis* is hard to eradicate when growing on wooden benches or from the ground. Fortunately, this disease is not common.

Sclerotinia

Sclerotinia attacks many herbaceous ornamental and vegetable crops, including chrysanthemum, snapdragon, salvia, dahlia, delphinium, tomato, pepper and eggplant. The disease is most common outdoors but is observed occasionally in the greenhouse.

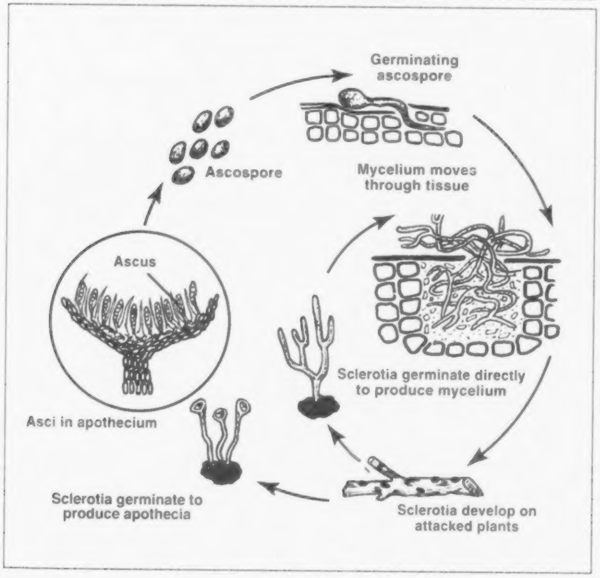
- Symptoms vary with the host, the affected host part and the environmental conditions. The most obvious early symptom is fluffy, thick, white mycelium on the stems of plants near the soil surface. See Figure 7–8, *Sclerotinia Life Cycle*. Relatively large, hard, charcoal-black, resting fruiting structures (called sclerotia) soon appear. These are embedded in the mycelium or in the pith of plant stems.

- The fungus causes a stem rot, which eventually leads to wilting and then kills the plant.

- During the early infection stages, no visible signs of infection appear on the foliage until the fungus grows completely through the stem. The exception is when the initial infection occurs through a leaf.

- *Sclerotinia* fungus survives either as sclerotia in plant tissue, in the soil for at least three years or as mycelium in dead or living plant material.

FIGURE 7–8. Sclerotinia Life Cycle


Germinating ascospore
Ascospore
Mycelium moves through tissue
Ascus
Sclerotia germinate directly to produce mycelium
Asci in apothecium
Sclerotia germinate to produce apothecia
Sclerotia develop on attacked plants

Disease Control

- Pasteurize the soil for effective control in soil-grown crops.

- For bench-grown crops, control can be difficult. Maintain dry foliage by minimizing overhead watering and dripping and provide good air circulation through the crop canopy.

- This disease is most problematic in spring and summer because day length influences its activity.

Rusts

The rust fungi of greenhouse crops are host specific and do not require an alternative host to complete their life cycle. Rust may occur on carnation, chrysanthemum, fuchsia, geranium, snapdragon and many outdoor perennials.

- Rust diseases produce masses of white, yellow, orange, or brown to reddish-brown uredospores on the undersurface of leaves and stems. These appear when the pustules erupt to release the mature spores. First symptoms usually appear within 5–7 days of infection, depending on environmental conditions.

- The various rusts can produce concentric ring patterns. These rings are due to a series of environmental conditions conducive to secondary and tertiary infections. The leaf surface directly above the pustule is usually yellow. Numerous infection sites on a leaf will cause yellowing, and eventually senescence, of the leaf. The lower leaves are usually infected first. Plants are rarely killed.

- Rust spores spread via air currents and by splashing water within a greenhouse. Spores can travel long distances on the leaf surfaces of cuttings. A film of water must remain on upper leaf surfaces for at least 3–4 hours for spore germination and infection. However, sporulation is on the undersurface.

Disease Control

Chrysanthemum white rust is the only quarantinable rust disease of greenhouse ornamentals. Chrysanthemum white rust appears as creamy-coloured pustules on the undersurface of the lower leaves.

Growers receiving imported stock they suspect is infected should contact the Canadian Food Inspection Agency.

- Controlling rust diseases is difficult. Most produce more than one type of spore, and infected plant residue (e.g., under benches) can harbour the spores for long periods.

- A temperature range of 10°C–25°C favours spore production.

- Spores are released into the air more readily with diurnal relative-humidity fluctuation.

- Infections are often severe near fans and in corners of the greenhouse.

- Severe infections also occur under conditions of poor air circulation and temperature stratification due to crowding or a heavy canopy.

- Avoid overhead watering or late-afternoon watering.

- Prevent dew formation on plants by providing adequate heating, ventilation and air circulation at night to control relative humidity around and through the plant canopy.

- Remove as many infected leaves as possible to reduce the inoculum level.

Bacterial Diseases

Bacteria are single-celled organisms that multiply rapidly under ideal temperature conditions. Their rate of development and spread increase with temperature, moisture availability and food supply.

- Some plant pathogenic bacteria attack only one or two plant species; others attack a wide range of plants. Plants commonly attacked by bacteria include geranium, begonia, chrysanthemum, calla lily and hibiscus.

- Bacterial infections may appear as wilts, stem and root rots, leaf spots, galls and fasciation of plant parts. Although bacterial diseases are less common than fungal diseases, they can be very destructive and difficult to control. *Erwinia, Pseudomonas, Ralstonia* and *Xanthomonas* are the most common disease-causing bacteria affecting greenhouse crops. The bacteria can live on or in roots, leaves, and stems of hosts, and in non-host plants.

- Bacteria do not produce spores. Most bacteria survive in the greenhouse in a semi-dehydrated state, infecting plant debris for extended periods of time. However, *Ralstonia* survives in soil without association with plant tissues for long periods of time. See more details in *Ralstonia solanacearum,* opposite.

- Bacteria enter wound sites and natural plant openings such as stomata and hydathodes or root hairs. A film of water is usually required for a bacterial infection to begin on above ground plant parts.

Disease Control

- No chemical controls will eradicate bacterial diseases. Prevention is the key.

- Good cultural practices and careful sterilization procedures reduce the chance of bacterial infection.

- Purchase disease-free stock from the plant breeder for propagation purposes.

- Isolate stock plants in a thoroughly disinfected area.

- Disinfect cutting tools and propagation areas frequently.

- In general, warm temperatures (above 25°C) are required for bacteria to develop rapidly.

- Bacteria spread on leaves and stems by condensation, splashing water, and during pruning or harvesting of cuttings.

- These diseases can spread very rapidly on propagation benches and in sub-irrigation systems.

- Both fixed and organic copper sprays are reasonable protectants against bacterial diseases. However, they are not eradicants and may cause phytotoxicity.

Erwinia carotovora

Erwinia carotovora causes soft-rot symptoms that first appear to be just water-soaked but quickly break down into a foul-smelling, mushy rot. This disease thrives in warm, humid conditions.

Erwinia chrysanthemumi

Erwinia chrysanthemumi attacks a wide range of floral crops including all foliage crops, chrysanthemum, poinsettia and begonia. Its symptoms include root rots, leaf blights and wilts.

Ralstonia solanacearum

- *Ralstonia solanacearum* is a bacterial plant pathogen that causes bacterial wilt. It has a very wide host range. Known previously as *Pseudomonas,* the bacterium is not really a new disease. Because of its diversity it has been classified into various groupings known as races and biovars. Recently, Race 3 biovar 2, known as the "potato race" has been found on vegetative geranium cuttings originating from tropical or sub-tropical regions. **It is considered a quarantinable disease because it is not known to exist in North America and because its host range includes two important food crops, potato and tomato, as well as geranium.**

Growers who suspect the disease must notify the Canadian Food Inspection Agency.

- *Ralstonia* enters plants through the roots, and through stem wounds. It multiplies rapidly in the vascular tissue when temperatures are above 25°C.

- Early symptoms are similar to bacterial blight. Lower leaves typically wilt first; sectorial leaf yellowing may be present and stems may show brown to black discoloration near the soil line. Eventually the entire plant wilts and dies.

- The bacterium will survive for long periods of time in soil without plant residue. Under greenhouse conditions the bacterium can be spread on cutting knives, in soil or in contaminated recirculating sub-irrigation systems.

Xanthomonas campestris

Xanthomonas campestris and its various strains cause leaf spots and stem rots on a wide range of plants. These include begonia, geranium, zinnia and dieffenbachia. Symptoms range from small, well-defined spots with yellow margins on leaves to systemic activity where leaf veins become grey-green.

- Infected leaves wilt and eventually turn yellow and die. Stems turn dark green as the vascular tissue becomes blocked by the bacteria. In geranium and begonia, distinctive yellow V-shaped areas bounded by major veins usually appear in many leaves. Initially, one branch of the plant may exhibit the symptoms.

- Some hosts show no clear symptoms, but may appear not very vigorous.

- *Xanthomonas campestris* pv *pelargonii* commonly known as bacterial blight is very destructive in geranium. It infects all cultivars of zonal, ivy, seed and Martha Washington types. It is a systemic disease that can quickly kill zonal and seed geraniums. Other types are usually not killed but grow poorly and have a "ratty, unthrifty" appearance.

Viral Diseases

Viruses are disease-causing agents that multiply only within living plant cells. They tend to spread throughout the host plant through the vascular system. The important horticultural crops belong to major plant families that are susceptible to viral attack.

- Viruses can be spread by sucking insects, such as aphids and leafhoppers, by tools, or by crop handling such as plant cleaning, disbudding, or taking cuttings. Some viruses spread via infected cuttings.

- The first viral infection symptoms may include vein banding, flecking, ring spots, mosaic (irregular areas of dark and light green on the leaf) or growth abnormalities in the leaves. The specific symptoms depend on the type of virus. Symptoms do not always increase in severity. Some viruses cause stunting. In severely infected plants, the growing point of the plant may die.

- The extent of the visible symptoms depends on the duration of the infection, the age of the plant at the time of infection, and the growing conditions for the crop.

Disease Control

- No chemical controls will eradicate viral diseases. Prevention is the key.

- Good cultural practices and careful sterilization procedures reduce the chance of viral infection.

- Purchase disease-free stock from the plant breeder for propagation purposes.

- Isolate stock plants in a thoroughly disinfected area.

- Disinfect cutting tools and propagation areas frequently.

- Crop stress predisposes plants to a virus attack. Symptoms will be more apparent in stressed plants.

Tomato Spotted Wilt Virus/Impatiens Necrotic Spot Virus

Tomato spotted wilt virus (TSWV) and impatiens necrotic spot virus (INSV) are very unusual among plant viruses. They are complex particles spread by a few thrips species, and they have a broad host range. INSV is the most common; TSWV usually affects only chrysanthemum among floral crops.

- In Ontario greenhouse production, TSWV and INSV are transmitted only by western flower thrips. Unlike other insect vectors, thrips must feed on infected plant tissue as first instar larvae to acquire the virus. Virus transmission occurs when infective adults feed and continues for as long as the thrips are alive.

- Characteristic symptoms vary depending on the host species and age. For many hosts, large brown or black circular ring spots appear on the foliage. In many hosts the virus becomes systemic, with black streaking of the major leaf veins, petioles, and (in some plants) the stem.

- In cyclamen, 8–10 weeks may pass between transmission and the first symptoms. Symptoms generally appear more quickly when plants are growing vigorously.

- When young gloxinias are infected, the virus rapidly develops systemically. Symptoms appear similar to *Phytophthora* crown rot.

- In other crops, such as petunia, the viral symptoms appear as small, discrete, tan-coloured spots. In petunia, the infection does not become systemic and this plant can be used as an early warning indicator of the disease.

- Sometimes the symptoms mimic pesticide phytotoxicity.

Disease Control

- A simultaneous, multi-prong approach is necessary for successful control.

- It is very difficult to control the virus during warm weather.

- Rogue virus-infected plants, stock plants and finishing plants to prevent first instar larvae from acquiring the virus.

- Control thrips populations to prevent viral spread. See Chapter 4, *Major Insect and Mite Pests*, page 44, for information on control measures.

- Purchase only clean cuttings from reputable propagators.

- Isolate stock plants in a thrips-free area.

- Screen vents.

- Weed control is important—many weeds are reservoirs of the virus.

8. Pesticide Toxicity and Activity

The LD_{50} of a pesticide listed in Table 8–2, *Insecticide and Miticide Toxicity and Classification*, Table 8–3, *Fungicide Toxicity and Classification* and Table 8–4, *Growth Regulator Toxicity and Classification* is a measure of its relative toxicity. This is the amount of the active ingredient (a.i.) of the chemical in milligrams used per kilogram of test animal (usually female rats) that kills 50% of the test animals. This is commonly measured as the acute oral LD_{50}, which refers to the chemical ingested through the mouth or nose. Dermal LD_{50} figures, or skin penetration, are also available. The higher the LD_{50} figure, the less toxic the product is to humans.

Note: Many pesticides of low acute toxicity cause long-term effects in laboratory animals. Users are therefore warned that these could be detrimental to human health.

Reduce exposure to a minimum by wearing protective clothing, including gloves, goggles and long-sleeved shirts.

The Ontario Schedule Number referred to in Tables 8–2, 8–3 and 8–4 is a classification under Ontario's *Pesticide Act*, which is administered by the Ministry of Environment. The act prohibits the sale and use of a pesticide product unless it is registered under the federal *Pest Control Products Act* and classified into one of six schedules. See Chapter 1, *Precautions with Pesticides*, for more information on this classification system

Inclusion of a product in these tables does not necessarily imply registration for greenhouse use or registration for a specific crop. **Read every product label to ensure suitability for a particular crop!**

TABLE 8–1. Fungicidal Activity against Diseases of Flower Crops

	Disease									
Fungicide	***Botrytis***	***Fusarium***	**Leaf Spot**[1]	**Powdery Mildew**	**Rusts**	***Pythium***	***Phytophthora***	***Rhizoctonia***	***Sclerotinia***	***Thielaviopsis***
Aliette (fosetyl-Al)						X	X			
Botran (dicloran)	X									
SupraCaptan, Maestro (captan)	X		X			R				
Daconil 2787 (chlorothalonil)	X	X	X	X	X			X		
Decree (fenhexamid)	X									
Folpan (folpet)						X	X			
Meltatox (dodemorph acetate)				X						
Mycostop (*Streptomyces griseoviridis*)		X								
No Damp (oxine benzoate)								X		
Nova (myclobutanil)				X	X					
Phyton 27 (elemental copper)	X		X	X						
Quintozene (quintozene)								X	X	
RootShield (*Trichoderma harzianum*)		X				X		X		

[1] Check label for specific leaf spot control. X Denotes control R Denotes resistance

TABLE 8–1. Fungicidal Activity against Diseases of Flower Crops (Cont'd)

Fungicide	Disease *Botrytis*	*Fusarium*	Leaf Spot[1]	Powdery Mildew	Rusts	*Pythium*	*Phytophthora*	*Rhizoctonia*	*Sclerotinia*	*Thielaviopsis*
Rovral (iprodione)	X							X	X	
Senator (thiophanate-methyl)	R	R	X	R				X	X	X
Subdue Maxx (metalaxyl)						X	X			
Sulphur			X	X						
Truban (etridiazole)						X	X			

[1] Check label for specific leaf spot control. X Denotes control R Denotes resistance

TABLE 8–2. Insecticide and Miticide Toxicity and Classification

Common Name	Trade Name	LD_{50} (mg a.i./kg)	Chemical Family	Ontario Schedule Number
Abamectin	Avid	300	Avermectin	3
Acephate	Orthene	866	Organophosphate	2
Bacillus thuringiensis	Dipel, Thuricide, Vectobac, BioProtec	15,000+	Biological	3 2
Bendiocarb	Trumpet	179	Carbamate	2
Carbaryl	Sevin	560	Carbamate	3
Chlorpyrifos	Dursban 2E, Dursban WSP, Pyrate	135	Organophosphate	3 2
Cyromazine	Citation	3,387	Triazine	2
Deltamethrin	Decis	535	Synthetic Pyrethroid	2
Diazinon	Diazinon,	300	Organophosphate	2
Dichlorvos	DDVP Smoke 20%EC	80	Organophosphate	3 2
Dicofol	Kelthane	684	Organochlorine	2
Diflubenzuron	Dimilin	4,640	Substituted Benzoylurea	2
Dimethoate	Cygon, Lagon	235	Organophosphate	2
Endosulfan	Thiodan	110	Organochlorine	2
Imidacloprid	Intercept	1,858	Chloronicotinyl	5
Kinoprene-S	Enstar II	4,900	Insect Growth Regulator	3
Malathion	Malathion	1,400	Organophosphate	3
Naled	Dibrom	430	Organophosphate	2
Nicotine	Nicotine Smoke	50	Botanical	2
Permethrin	Pounce	4,000+	Synthetic Pyrethroid	3
Phosmet	Imidan	126–681	Organophosphate	3
Pirimicarb	Pirliss	147	Carbamate	2
Pymetrozine	Endeavor	>5,000	Pyridine azomethine	2
Pyridaben	Dyno-Mite	1,930	Pyridazinone	3
Tebufenozide	Confirm	>5,000	Insect Growth Regulator	2

TABLE 8–3. Fungicide Toxicity and Classification

Common Name	Trade Name	LD_{50} (mg a.i./kg)	Chemical Family	Ontario Schedule Number
Bromine	Agribrom	1,390	Inorganic	3
Captan	SupraCaptan, Maestro	9,000	Phthalimide	2
Chlorothalonil	Daconil 2787	10,000+	Aromatic hydrocarbon	3
Copper	Phyton-27	5,000+	Copper	3
Dazomet	Basamid, Mylone	519	Diazine	3
Dicloran	Botran	10,000+	Dicarboximide	3
Dodemorph acetate	Meltatox	4,180	Morphactin	3
Etridiazole	Truban	1,077	Thiadiazole	3
Fenhexamid	Decree	5,000+	Anilide	2
Folpet	Folpan	10,000+	Phthalimide	2
Fosetyl-Al	Aliette	5,000	Organophosphorus	2
Iprodione	Rovral	3,500	Dicarboximide	3
Mancozeb	Dithane M-45	>5,000	Dithiocarbamate	3
Metalaxyl	Subdue 2G	669	Acylalanine	2
Myclobutanil	Nova	1,870	Triazole	2
Oxine benzoate	No-Damp	1,000+	Aromatic hydrocarbon	3
Quintozene	Quintozene	30,000	Aromatic hydrocarbon	3
Streptomyces griseoviridis	Mycostop		Biological	3
Thiophanate methyl	Senator	>6,000	Benzimidazole	3
Trichoderma harzianum	RootShield		Biological	3
Triforine	Funginex	>5,273	Amide	6
Zineb	Zineb	>5,200	Dithiocarbamate	3

TABLE 8–4. Growth Regulator Toxicity and Classification

Growth Regulator

Common Name	Trade Name	LD_{50} (mg a.i./kg)	Chemical Family	Ontario Schedule Number
Ancymidol	A-Rest	40	Pyrimidine	6
Benzyladenine, G. A_4A_7	Fascination	3,160–4,900	Cytokinin	3
Chlormequat	Cycocel, Cycocel Extra	478	Quaternary Ammonium	2
Daminozide	B-Nine	6,810	Organic Acid	2
Paclobutrazol	Bonzi	5,000+	Triazole	2
Uniconazole	Sumagic	1,790	Triazole	2

Pesticide Injury to Flower Crops

Although greenhouse pesticides have been selected and formulated to avoid plant injury, damage can still occur under some conditions. Consider these general rules before applying pesticides.

- No product is safe on all plants under all conditions, although wettable powders are generally less injurious than liquid formulations.
- A material (e.g., smokes) may be safe when applied to dry foliage but can cause injury when used on wet foliage.
- Weather conditions at the time of application are important. Pesticides are more likely to be phytotoxic when applied during bright sunny weather than if applied during dull, overcast conditions.
- Well-watered, unstressed plants are less likely to be damaged by pesticides.
- Low-volume applications are generally less likely to cause plant injury than high-volume applications.

Pesticide Hazards

The following list of possible hazards was compiled from grower experiences and pesticide label warnings.

This list is not comprehensive. When using a product for the first time on a new crop, always test it first on several different varieties and on a small area and check for damage after 4 or 5 days.

- *Avid* may damage Shasta daisy and certain species of fern.
- Do not tank-mix *Botran* with EC formulations of insecticides, particularly organophosphates.
- Do not use *Chlorpyrifos* (*Dursban 2E, Pyrate*) on azalea, camellia, poinsettia, rose, geranium, oxalis, coleus or variegated ivy. *Dursban WSP* should not be used on acalyphis, aphelandra, schefflera, croton, ficus, hibiscus, impatiens, nephrolepsis, petunia or rose.
- *Daconil 2787* may damage open blooms on some plants (e.g., exacum).
- *D.C.D.* has been reported to cause damage to some greenhouse vegetable crops.
- *DDVP (dichlorvos)* is injurious on some older chrysanthemum varieties (e.g., Shasta and Pink Champagne). It also damages tradescantia and fern, some varieties o snapdragon as well as rose and crassula. Crop should b dry when applied. DDVP smoke will damage open blooms of regal geranium.
- *Diazinon* is not for use on gardenia, poinsettia, hibiscus, stephanotis, pilea, hydrangea or cyclamen foliage
- *Dibrom* injures some ornamentals, including some chrysanthemum and rose varieties, and can cause flower damage to cucumber. Avoid over-treatment an direct application to plants.
- *Dimilin* should not be used on poinsettia, hibiscus or Rieger begonia.
- *Dyno-Mite* may cause colour change in blossoms of petunia (cv. White madness).
- *Enstar II* may cause slight to moderate injury to bloom under certain conditions. Application to some varietie of poinsettia has resulted in bract damage. Use on som varieties of roses can result in delayed damage.
- Do not use *insecticidal soap* on sweet pea, nasturtium o delicate ferns.
- Do not use *Malathion* on fern, petunia, crassula, orchid, sweet pea, cucurbits, African violet, gloxinia, rieger begonia, and some carnation and rose varieties.
- *Manzate 200* may cause stunting when used in repeate soil drenches on cyclamen, exacum and poinsettia, pa ticularly when soil is dry.
- Do not use *Meltatox* on Tropicana roses, nor on plant other than roses.
- *Metasystox-R* damages lily, rieger begonia, geranium, and some older chrysanthemum varieties (e.g., Hurricane, Iceberg, Whitetop and Pennant).
- *Nicotine* may injure lily and some chrysanthemum va eties. Do not smoke on open blooms of snapdragon, impatiens, geranium or African violet. It may injure wet leaves of tomato and cucumber.
- *Nova* may result in some growth regulation to treate plants.

- *Orthene* is injurious to African violet, poinsettia, gloxinia and many varieties of geranium.

- *Pentac Aquaflow* causes some foliage damage on chrysanthemum. Do not apply to open blooms, especially hydrangea.

- *Pirimor/Pirliss* should not be applied to Icecap, Goldcap and related varieties of chrysanthemum.

- *Rovral* can cause petal scorch on flowers of African violet.

- *Safers Insecticidal Soap* should not be used on poinsettia, maidenhair fern, sweet pea or nasturtium.

- *Sevin (carbaryl)* should not be used on Boston ivy or Virginia creeper.

- *Thiodan (endosulfan)* may injure some geranium varieties. Emulsifiable concentrate has injured Bonnaffon Deluxe and some older chrysanthemum varieties. There have been reports of injury to cineraria, gardenia, gloxinia, poinsettia, rose, African violet and pothos. If plants are well watered and not stressed, there is less likelihood of damage.

- Do not apply *Trumpet* to gloxinia. Grower experiences suggest there may be some burn to cineraria.

9. Using Plant Growt Regulator

Plant growth, especially vegetative growth, can be controlled by a number of cultural and environmental management techniques.

Cultural

- *Moisture stress* — Growing a crop under moisture stress, which can be accomplished by withholding water within the growing substrate as well as maintaining very low relative humidity, will reduce plant growth.
- *Nutrition* — Excess nitrogen fertilization promotes cell expansion and ultimately stem elongation. Controlling phosphorus levels can also help in controlling vegetative growth.
- *Day/night temperature or DIF* — DIF is defined as the day temperature minus the night temperature. Maintaining a lower day than night temperature (negative DIF) or by providing a sudden temperature drop during the morning hours beginning with the first light helps control plant height. In addition, raising or lowering the average 24-hour temperature will increase or retard the rate of plant growth.
- *Light intensity* — Higher light intensities generally produce shorter plants in the greenhouse.
- *Light quality* — Removing end-of-the-day twilight from the greenhouse by using blackout or special shade cloth, which increases the red/far-red light ratio compared to ambient light, provides a technique to produce short plants.
- *Mechanical stress* — Growing plants in an environment with strong air movement or brushing the plants a number of times per day will reduce plant height.
- *Cold water* — Using cold water applied overhead can have a growth-regulating effect on plants. For Easter lily (cv. Nellie White), it has been shown that plant height increases linearly with water temperature at about 1.5 cm/°C in the range of 2°C–20°C. In this situation, the water was applied 2×/week and 100 mL/plant per watering. Be sure to apply water c the meristem (apical point) of the plant rather than c the soil. Some bedding plants also respond positively this technique.

Chemical

- Plant growth regulators (PGRs) have become an important cultural tool in modifying plant development in greenhouse flower crop production during tl last three decades. They influence different plant pro cesses, such as stem elongation, branching, rooting, flower induction and vegetative growth. This section focuses on factors to consider in limiting vegetative growth (controlling height) using PGRs.

Factors to Consider

Plant Vigour

Provide plant growth regulators (PGRs) only to vigorous growing plants or to vigorous cultivars. Avoid weaker plants or less vigorous cultivars, as height reduction may excessive. PGRs impose a stress on plants, and healthy, v orous plants are more likely to tolerate this stress. A deh drated plant is more susceptible to phytotoxicity from a PGR than is a turgid plant. Apply PGRs only to plants with well-established root systems. For example, A-Rest applied to Easter lilies with poor root development can cause undue loss of bottom leaves.

Cultivar Response

The growth habit of a cultivar determines the PGR con centration and the number of applications required. Fo example, a tall-growing pot crysanthemum such as the Princess Anne series will generally need a higher concent tion of PGRs than shorter cultivars such as Mandalays. The same is true for certain poinsettia lines.

Environment

Plants grown under low temperature and light may requ fewer PGR applications than those grown under higher light and temperatures. Adjust concentrations accordin for winter and summer production. Do not apply PGR when temperatures exceed 22°C. If possible, apply during the evening or during periods of low transpiration losses so the PGR can be absorbed by the plant tissue. This is particularly true for contact PGRs such as B-9 and, to a lesser extent, Cycocel. Bonzi and Sumagic, both systemic PGRs, are quickly absorbed within the plant tissue.

Stage of Plant Growth

PGRs are most effective when applied to young, vigorous plants. A-Rest applied to Easter lilies under 10 cm high may reduce bud count, delay flowering or severely stunt plant growth. However, when applied too late, A-Rest or Sumagic will produce lilies with a palm tree effect; or on poinsettia, bracts that are too small. Early application may affect the development of some (bottom) breaks on poinsettia and chrysanthemum. This is most pronounced with high rates and the more effective PGRs.

Apply much lower rates of Bonzi or Sumagic to bedding plant plug seedlings than when applying to established plants in cell packs or baskets.

Dosage and Coverage

For most PGRs, the concentration of the active ingredient (a.i.) in the solution to be applied is critical. For simple conversion on a normalized level (1 or 1,000 ppm a.i.) see Table 9–1, *Dilution Guidelines for PGRs.*

Measure accurately using proper weighing instruments and/or measuring containers. For A-Rest, the recommendation is for drenching and is expressed as total active ingredient (a.i.) per pot. This means that the solution concentration (mg/L or ppm) multiplied by the solution volume to be applied (L/pot) should equal the dosage (mg/pot).

- Always read the label. There may be different formulations on the market, or the formulation may have changed. Use the material according to the manufacturer's directions. The label may also indicate the need for a spreader sticker.

- Store PGRs in a cool, dry, dark place. Do not allow temperatures to drop below 0°C. Shelf life is at least two years.

- Note that some PGRs may become unstable once mixed with water. To prevent breakdown, mix just before using.

Application Methods

Drench

- Some PGRs (e.g., A-Rest, Bonzi, Cycocel, and Sumagic) are systemic within the plant's vascular system. Drenching from above may distribute the chemical more evenly within the plant, increasing control. Application of PGRs by sub-irrigation has not been approved as yet. Concerns involve appropriate rates and the residues remaining on the tables, floors or troughs.

- Drench treatment is more precise than spraying but generally requires more labour.

- **Be sure roots are well developed before applying the chemical.** This is critical for an A-Rest drench on Easter lilies.

TABLE 9–1. Dilution Guidelines for PGRs

Product Name	Active Ingredient	Formulation	Spray or Drench Solution	
			1 ppm	1,000 ppm
A-Rest	Ancymidol	0.0264% (0.264 g/L)	3.8 mL/L	
B-9	Daminozide	85 SP (850 g/kg)		1.2 g/L
Bonzi	Paclobutrazol	0.4% (4 g/L)	0.25 mL/L	
Cycocel	Chlormequat	11.8% (118 g/L)		8.5 mL/L
Cycocel Extra	Chlormequat	46.0% (460 g/L)		2.2 mL/L
Fascination	Benzyladenine + gibberellins	1.8%/1.8%	0.056 mL/L	
Sumagic	Uniconazole	0.055% (0.55 g/L)	1.8 mL/L	

- Be sure plants are not stressed. Injury can occur if plants are even a little dry. It may be wise to water the plants in late afternoon and apply the treatment the following morning. Another benefit of pre-watering is to have a more even distribution of the PGR throughout the substrate in the pot.

- Apply adequate amounts of solution to wet the entire root mass.

- Drench applications of Sumagic and Bonzi are extremely effective. Accuracy is critical.

- Pine bark–based mixes will reduce the efficacy of A-Rest, Bonzi and Sumagic.

Spray

- Spray application is easier than using a drench, but ensuring uniform foliage coverage is critical. Spraying equipment *must* be operating properly.

- Plants should be turgid to prevent foliage damage.

- When applying Cycocel or B-Nine, keep foliage dry for 12–24 hours after spraying to prevent washing the chemicals from the leaves.

- Most chemicals contain wetting agents. However, a spreader may be necessary to distribute the chemical uniformly on the foliage and to lessen the likelihood of leaf damage. A rate of 10–20 L of spray/100 m^2 will generally give good coverage. For young and small plants, an even smaller volume can be used.

- To prevent chemical wastage, arrange the plants as closely together as possible without undue crowding.

- Keep a separate sprayer for the job. Clean the sprayer after each application to prevent unnecessary damage from other chemical residues.

- Use the recommended spray volume in Table 9–2, *Recommended Drench Volume*, as a guide.

When applied as foliar sprays, PGRs must be absorbed and transported within the plant. The active ingredient must move through the waxy cuticle layer of the leaf or stem and then into the plant tissue. Highly water-soluble PGRs such as B-Nine and Cycocel move slowly through the cuticle, while less-soluble PGRs (Sumagic, Bonzi, A-Rest) penetrate very rapidly.

TABLE 9–2. Recommended Application Volumes

Pot diameter (cm)	Volume of solution (mL/pot)	
	Drench	Spray
10	90	3
13	120	6
15	180	10
20	240	17.5
25	300	25

For Cycocel and B-Nine, absorption occurs while the foliage remains wet, meaning that they must be applied in the early morning, at the end of the day, or under cloudy, humid conditions with lower air movement. For these products, avoid overhead watering for 12–24 hours, so that the active ingredient is not washed off the plant.

A-Rest, Sumagic and Bonzi are absorbed very rapidly (within minutes), with little potential for being washed off after drying.

Number of Applications

While a single drench or spray application is the most economical, a "one-shot" treatment is vulnerable to mistakes. A split application using the lowest recommended rate (usually half of the highest recommended rate) applied twice is a safer alternative. A 1–2 week interval between applications increases flexibility and reduces the chance of plant damage. It also allows time to monitor plant growth, take weather changes into account, and make repeated applications accordingly. Plant shape generally improves with the technique of multiple applications.

Estimating Final Plant Height

Floriculture researchers have found that the final height of chrysanthemum, Easter lily and poinsettia can be predicted using growth charts over time (graphical tracking). Graphical tracking can help determine the effectiveness of a growth retardant and the need for additional applications. Four weeks following the start of short days, chrysanthemum and poinsettia reach approximately half their final height at maturity. Easter lilies will approximately double in height from the time of visible bud. Measuring the plant height from the pot rim at this time and doubling this number provides an estimate of the final height. If the 4-week estimated height is too tall, an additional PGR may be warranted. This will reduce growth further, producing a more desirable plant.

Growers should use graphical tracking in an integrated cultural program as a growth-monitoring technique. Graphical tracking programs are commercially available with typical growth curves for these crops.

Directions for Mixing Chemicals

- Always read the label. Handle the chemicals according to the manufacturer's recommendations and observe all restrictions and precautions.

- When mixing chemicals, note that the final volume of a PGR mixture should include the PGR that will be added. First measure the chemical, then add water until the desired final volume of the solution is reached. For example, if the label directions read 60 mL B-9/L, first add 60 mL of B-9 to a suitable measuring container, then add water to the 1 L mark. Remember that the final solution, including B-9, should be 1 L.

- Don't add wetting agent (spreader) if the label states that this is already present in the solution. However, if excessive beading occurs, add wetting agent to eliminate the beading.

- Read the label to see if the material is sufficiently stable for storage after mixing. It is best to mix chemicals **right** before each application to ensure proper chemical activity.

Don't mix PGRs with any other pesticides. Growth-regulator applications are too critical; don't take chances to save time. Mix and apply PGRs precisely.

Growth-Regulator Recommendations for Flower Crops

The efficacy of PGRs can be very crop dependent. Read the label before applying any PGR. See Table 9–3, *Summary of PGRs by Crop* and Table 9–4, *Plant Growth Regulators.*

TABLE 9–3. Summary of PGRs by Crop

Crop	Registered PGRs
Azalea	B-Nine
Bedding plants	B-Nine, Bonzi, Sumagic
Chrysanthemum (pot)	A-Rest, B-Nine, Sumagic
Chrysanthemum (cut)	B-Nine
Geranium (zonal)	Bonzi, Cycocel, Cycocel Extra, Sumagic
Hydrangea	B-Nine
Easter lilies	A-Rest, Fascination, Sumagic
Lily hybrids	A-Rest, Fascination
Poinsettia	A-Rest, B-Nine, Cycocel, Cycocel Extra, Sumagic

TABLE 9–4. Plant Growth Regulators

A-Rest (0.0264% ancymidol)

Crops	**Chrysanthemum (potted), lily, poinsettia**
Concentration of Active Ingredient	2–8 ppm
Mixing Rate	2 ppm = 7.5 mL per L water 8 ppm = 30 mL per L water
Method of Application	Drench. Apply 0.25 mg active ingredient per 15-cm pot.
Timing	• *Chrysanthemum*: apply just as root system spreads over outside of root ball, or approximately 2 weeks after pinch when laterals are 5 cm long. • *Lily*: apply when lily is 7–15 cm tall. Do not apply between Jan. 23 and Feb. 7, as bud count may be reduced. • *Poinsettia*: treat plants from pinch to 4 weeks after pinch; or 8–12 weeks before finish.
Comments	Entire soil must receive uniform application. Do not apply a wetting agent. Ensure healthy roots and adequate phosphorus nutrition of Easter lily to minimize lower leaf yellowing.

Cycocel (11.8% chlormequat)

Crops	Azalea, geranium (seed), poinsettia
Concentration of Active Ingredient	*Azalea:* 1,500–2,000 ppm *Geranium:* 2,000–3,000 ppm *Poinsettia:* 1,500–3,000 ppm
Mixing Rate	2,000 ppm = 17 mL per L water; 3,000 ppm = 25 mL per L water
Method of Application	Spray or drench
Timing	• *Azalea*: apply twice 1 week apart after regrowth from last pinch is 2–2.5 cm long, to control elongation and improve flower initiation, or to prevent late-season growth. • *Geranium (seed)*: first apply when plants have 2–4 true leaves or about 3 weeks after transplanting. • *Poinsettia*: apply when shoots are 2–4 cm tall.
Comments	• Azalea: can produce medium-hard plants, slight chlorosis, and/or uneven flowering. Also used to promote early flowering on some varieties. • *Geranium (seed)*: may cause some marginal leaf burn when applied as a foliar spray. Induces earlier flowering and promotes branching. • *Poinsettia*: application later than Oct. 10 may delay flower development and reduce bract size. Two applications with half the recommended concentration is more effective than once at high concentration.

Cycocel Extra (46.0% chlormequat)

Crops	**Geranium (zonal), poinsettia**
Concentration of Active Ingredient	*Geranium*: 1,500–3,000 ppm *Poinsettia*: 1,500–3,000 ppm
Mixing Rate	1,500 ppm = 3.25 mL per L water 3,000 ppm = 6.5 mL per L water
Method of Application	Spray or drench
Timing	• *Geranium (zonal)*: apply as a drench at 1,500–3,000 ppm 3 weeks after transplanting, when well-rooted and stem begins to elongate. • *Poinsettia*: apply when shoots are 2–4 cm tall.
Comments	• *Geranium (zonal)*: Induces earlier flowering and promotes branching. • *Poinsettia*: application later than Oct. 15 for poinsettias, grown under natural photoperiod, may delay flower development and reduce bract size. Spraying twice with half the recommended concentration is more effective than once at the high concentration.

B-Nine SP (85% daminozide)	
Crops	**Azalea, bedding plants, chrysanthemum (potted and cut), hydrangea, poinsettia**
Concentration of Active Ingredient	*Azalea* (2,500–3,500 ppm) *Bedding plants* (2,500–5,000 ppm) *Chrysanthemum* *pots* (2,500–5,000 ppm); *cuts* (2,500 ppm) *Hydrangea* (2,500–5,000 ppm) *Poinsettia* (5,000–7,000 ppm)
Mixing Rate	2,500 ppm = 3.0 g/L water
Method of Application	Spray
Timing	• *Azalea*: apply after last pinch when shoots are 2.5 cm long to promote development of additional buds. • *Bedding plants*: apply 2–3 weeks after transplanting or when the plants begin to elongate. Repeat as required. • *Chrysanthemum (pots)*: apply when shoots are 2–4 cm long. May be repeated 3 weeks later; *(cuts)*: to prevent stretching of the peduncles, spray 2 days after disbudding or 4 weeks after shade initiation. • *Hydrangea*: apply first spray between 2 and 3 weeks (4–5 leaf stage); second spray one week later. • *Poinsettia*: spray when shoots are approximately 5 cm tall.
Comments	• *Azalea*: increases short-day response and early bud formation. Do not let solution drip onto growing medium. • *Bedding plants*: good for most bedding plants but ineffective on snapdragon, celosia, coleus, pansy, geranium, carnation, cleome, convolvulus and gomphrena. • *Chrysanthemum (pots)*: use low concentration on pinched crops; high concentration on single-stem plants. Spray foliage to run off; *(cuts)*: do not mix B-Nine with any other pesticides. • *Hydrangea*: apply after buds are visible if necessary. • *Poinsettia*: do not add any wetting agent. Late application will delay blooming.

Bonzi (0.4% paclobutrazol)	
Crops	**Bedding plants in plug trays, cell packs, or small pots**
Concentration of Active Ingredient	0.5–60 ppm depending on method of application and crop species. **Read the label carefully. Bonzi is extremely active at very low concentrations. Test with lower concentrations on all species and cultivars.**
Mixing Rate	1 ppm = 0.25 mL per L water 2 ppm = 0.5 mL per L water 10 ppm = 2.5 mL per L water
Method of Application	Spray (use 1–2 L per 10 m^2 depending on the stage of plant growth) Drench (use 60–80 mL per 10-cm pot; 120–140 mL per 15-cm pot)
Timing	For bedding plants, make first application at the first- or second-leaf stage. Apply to plants in cell packs or pots once plants are established after transplanting, usually 2–3 weeks later.
Comments	• Desired height control is usually obtained with a single spray or drench application, but good height control can also be obtained by repeated applications 7–10 days apart at half the recommended concentration. • Take care not to apply excessive amounts of spray to young plants that have not completely covered the medium; excess may enter the medium and act as a drench, resulting in excessive stunting of sensitive species. • Bonzi spray applications are absorbed through the stems, so thorough and uniform coverage is essential. Over-application can result in stunting and delayed flowering.

Fascination (1.8% benzyladenine, BA, and 1.8% gibberellins, GA$_{4+7}$)

Crops	Easter lily, asiatic hybrid lily and oriental hybrid lily
Concentration of Active Ingredient	25–100 ppm of benzyladenine or GA4_{+7}
Mixing Rate	25 ppm = 1.4 mL per L water 100 ppm = 5.6 mL per L water
Method of Application	Direct spray at 25 ppm to the lower leaves only at visible bud stage, before leaf yellowing starts. Apply to entire plant at 100 ppm when buds are fully formed and are about to be placed in cold storage. Use standard equipment at low pressure to avoid mists on immature leaves, which will cause stretching of plants. Apply 1.9 L of spray solution to 10 m^2 of bench area, ensuring proper coverage of lower leaves, but no more than 15 mL per plant as soil application can also cause stretch. The product is not systemic within the plant, so only leaves contacted will be protected.
Timing	Apply at visible bud stage or just prior to cold storage.
Comments	Differences in plant response due to differences in plant surfaces, leaf orientation and plant structure are possible. Apply during morning or late afternoon, when plants are not under stress.

Sumagic (0.055% uniconazole-P)

Crops	Bedding plants, chrysanthemum, Easter lily, geranium (seed and zonal), poinsettia
Concentration of Active Ingredient	*Bedding plants*: 1–30 ppm *Chrysanthemum*: 5–10 ppm *Easter lily*: 3–30 ppm *Geranium*: 2–4 ppm (seed); 2–8 ppm (zonal) *Poinsettia*: 2–8 ppm
Mixing Rate	1 ppm = 1.8 mL per L water 2 ppm = 3.6 mL per L water 10 ppm = 18 mL per L water
Method of Application	Spray (use 1–2 L per 10 m^2 depending on the stage of plant growth) Low pressure and larger droplet size are recommended for best results.
Timing	• *Bedding plants*: varies depending on the species being treated. Read the label carefully. First application is usually made when seedlings are 2.5–3.0 cm tall. • *Chrysanthemum*: apply 7–14 days after pinch when the length of the breaks is 3.8-5.0 cm. A single repeat spray can be made 7–21 days after the first, to increase the level of growth reduction. • *Easter lily*: apply when shoots are 7.5 cm tall. Do not make repeated applications within 2 weeks and avoid late applications. • *Geranium*: (seed) apply when plant height is 5–16 cm (zonal) apply to cuttings once rooting is established. • *Poinsettia*: apply when breaks are 3.5–5.0 cm long (about 10–14 days after pinching). Up to two repeat applications can be made at 7-day intervals until desired growth characteristics are achieved. Do not apply after bracts are initiated.
Comments	• Plant response to Sumagic is strongly influenced by cultural and environmental factors such as growing media, water/fertilizer management, temperature, light, growing house composition and other cultural practices. Treat a limited number of plants at the lowest recommended rate when using for the first time. Lower rates may be needed at lower temperatures. • *Bedding plants*. Use the lowest recommended rate. Check the response of each species first. • *Chrysanthemum*: Two applications may have more effect than the same amount of product applied as a single treatment. • *Easter lily*: Treatment with Sumagic may reduce the water requirement of Easter lily. Avoid late-season applications. Under Ontario conditions, the rate of 2–3 ppm seems suitable with a maximum of three sprays per season. • *Poinsettia*: Bract size and diameter may be slightly reduced with treatment, and days to flowering may be delayed if applied after the initiation of short days.

10. Pest and Disease Control

This chapter consists of two tables, both of which list pesticide recommendations for greenhouse flower crops. Table 10–1, *Pesticide Recommendations — By Pesticide*, summarizes alphabetically the registered pesticides and the crops and pests on which they can be used. Table 10–2, *Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop*, is a detailed alphabetical listing by crop of pesticide recommendations. For each crop there is a listing of pests and diseases, the control products that are registered and the recommended rates. Always confirm uses and rates on the label before using. The order in which products appear in the tables below does not constitute a preference ranking. Many pesticides can cause phytotoxic reactions under certain conditions. Read the label carefully and refer to the section on *Pesticide Injury to Flower Crops*, page 82.

TABLE 10–1. Pesticide Recommendations — By Pesticide

Insecticides

Trade Name (active ingredient)	Pests	Crops
Avid (abamectin)	Spider mites, leafminers	Greenhouse ornamentals
Citation (cyromazine)	Leafminer, fungus gnats, shoreflies	Greenhouse ornamentals
Confirm (tebufenozide)	Armyworms, cutworms, cabbage loopers, tobacco budworm, leafrollers	Greenhouse ornamentals
Dibrom (naled)	Whiteflies, aphids, spider mites, leafrollers, mealybugs	Rose, cut flowers
Dimilin (diflubenzuron)	Fungus gnats, shoreflies	Greenhouse ornamentals
Dipel (*Bacillus thuringiensis*)	Leafrollers, cabbage looper	Rose, chrysanthemum
DDVP smoke fumigator (dichlorvos)	Aphids, spider mites, western flower thrips, whiteflies, mealybugs	Greenhouse ornamentals
DDVP 20% EC (dichlorvos)	Aphids, whiteflies	Greenhouse ornamentals
Decis (deltamethrin)	Western flower thrips	Greenhouse floriculture crops (chrysanthemum, cineraria, Easter lily, geranium)
Dyno-Mite (pyridaben)	Whiteflies, spider mites	Greenhouse ornamentals
Endeavor (pymetrozine)	Aphid control, whitefly suppression	Greenhouse ornamentals
Enstar II (kinoprene)	Whiteflies, aphids	Greenhouse ornamentals
Insecticidal soap	Aphids, whiteflies, spider mites, mealybugs, soft brown scale	Greenhouse ornamentals
Intercept (imidacloprid)	Aphids, whiteflies	Greenhouse ornamentals
Kelthane (dicofol)	Mites	Greenhouse ornamentals
Malathion (malathion)	Aphids, whiteflies, thrips, mealybugs, spider mites	Chrysanthemum, carnation, rose, geranium, snapdragon
Nicotine (nicotene)	Aphids, thrips, rose midge, chrysanthemum midge	Greenhouse ornamentals
Orthene (acephate)	Aphids, thrips, whitefly, rose midge, leafroller	Greenhouse rose
Pirliss (pirimicarb)	Aphids	Greenhouse ornamentals
Pounce (permethrin)	Whitefly, chrysanthemum leafminer	Greenhouse ornamentals
Pyrate (chlorpyrifos)	Thrips, whiteflies, scale, mealybugs, leafhoppers	Greenhouse ornamentals

TABLE 10–1. Pesticide Recommendations — By Pesticide (Cont'd)

Insecticides

Trade Name (active ingredient)	Pests	Crops
Thiodan 50WP, 4EC; Endosulfan 50W, Thionex EC (endosulfan)	Aphids, whitefly, cyclamen mite	Greenhouse ornamentals
Trumpet (bendiocarb)	Scales, thrips, mealybug, aphids, fungus gnats	Greenhouse ornamentals
Vectobac (*Bacillus thuringiensis*)	Fungus gnats	Greenhouse ornamentals

Fungicides

Trade Name (active ingredient)	Diseases	Crops
Aliette (fosetyl-Al)	*Pythium, phytophthora*	Greenhouse ornamentals
Botran (dicloran)	*Botrytis*	Rose, geranium, chrysanthemum
Daconil 2787 (chlorothalonil)	Various foliar diseases (see label)	Various bulb, flowering and foliage plants (see label)
Decree (fenhexamid)	*Botrytis*	Greenhouse ornamentals
Folpan (folpet)	*Pythium* root rot	Poinsettia
Maestro, SupraCaptan (captan)	Damping-off, root rots, leaf spots (see label)	Greenhouse rose, other flowers
Meltatox (dodemorph acetate)	Powdery mildew	Rose
Mycostop (*Streptomyces griseoviridis*)	*Fusarium*	Greenhouse ornamentals
No-Damp (oxine benzoate)	Damping-off	Ornamental seedlings and cuttings
Nova (myclobutanil)	Rusts, powdery mildew	Geranium, poinsettia, rose, gerbera, aster, chrysanthemum
Phyton 27 (elemental copper)	Various fungal and bacterial foliar diseases (see label)	Various crops as foliar spray, cutting dip and postharvest application (see label)
Quintozene (quintozene)	*Rhizoctonia, sclerotinia*	Various ornamental and bulb crops (see label)
Rootshield (*Trichoderma harzianum*)	Root diseases caused by *Rhizoctonia, Pythium* and *Fusarium*	Greenhouse ornamentals
Rovral (iprodione)	*Botrytis*, damping-off *(Rhizoctonia)*	Ornamentals
Senator (thiophanate-methyl)	*Rhizoctonia, fusarium*, powdery mildew, *botrytis*, leaf spots	Greenhouse potted ornamentals
Subdue Maxx, (metalaxyl)	*Pythium, phytophthora*	Greenhouse ornamentals
Truban (etridiazole)	*Pythium, phytophthora*	Various bedding, foliage, container and bed-grown ornamentals (see label)

Other Pesticides

Trade Name (active ingredient)	Pest	Crops
Deadline M-Ps (metaldehyde)	Slugs	Ornamentals
Slug-Em (metaldehyde)	Slugs	Ornamentals
Sluggo (ferric phosphate)	Slugs	Outdoor and greenhouse ornamentals, nurseries

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
African Violet (*Saintpaulia*)	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Cyclamen Mite	Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 WP	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Mealybug	DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Trumpet 80 WP	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Crown Rot *Pythium/Phytophthora*	Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		Truban 25 EC	300–630 mL	
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
African Violet (cont'd)	*Rhizoctonia* Stem Rot	Quintozene	1.25 kg	Drench
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	Drench
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
Aster	*Botrytis*	Maestro 75 DF	1.5 kg	
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.25 kg	
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	Trial on a few plants before large-scale application
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Powdery Mildew	Nova 40 W	340 g	
Azalea	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50W	1.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Enstar II	250– 750 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Cyclamen Mite	Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 WP	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Leafroller	Confirm 240 F	1.0 L	
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Thrips	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil-surface spray
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Azalea (cont'd)	Two-Spotted Spider Mite (cont'd)	Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 g	Suppression only
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Cylindrocladium	Phyton 27	1.25–2.75 L	
	Damping-off *Pythium/Phytophthora*	Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Rhizoctonia	Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	Drench
		Maestro 75 DF	3.25–6.5 kg	Cutting dip
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	3.0–6.0 kg	Cutting dip
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Phytophthora	Aliette WDG	2.8 kg	Foliar application
		Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and. transplanting
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
Bedding Plants	Aphid	Pirliss 50 DF	500 g	
		Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	Due to diversity of types, test a few plants first

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Bedding Plants (cont'd)	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Thrips	Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Pounce 384 EC	260 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–485 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 g	Suppression only
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50% WP	1 kg	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
		Daconil 2787	2.5 L	Species as listed on label
	Damping-off *Pythium/ Phytophthora*	Truban 30% WP	90–135 g 55–110 g/m^3	Soil drench Dry soil mix
		Truban 25 EC	240–300 mL	
		Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Bedding Plants (cont'd)	Damping-off (cont'd)	Aliette WDG	2.8 kg 950 g	Foliar application Drench
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Rhizoctonia	No-Damp	10 L	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	Drench
		Maestro 75 DF	1.5 kg	
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.5 kg	
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
Begonia (Rieger)	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Mealybug	Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Pyrate 480 EC	200 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
	Thrips	Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Begonia (Rieger) (cont'd)	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 mL	Suppression only
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Pounce 384 EC	260 mL	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Root Rot (Cuttings)	Truban 30% WP	90–135 g	Drench
	Pythium/Phytophthora		55–110 g	Dry soil mix
		Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		Aliette WDG	2.8 kg	Foliar application
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Rhizoctonia	Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	Drench
		Quintozene	1.25 kg	Drench
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.5 kg	
		Maestro 75 DF	1.5 kg	
	Powdery Mildew	Phyton-27	1.25–2.5 L	
Bulb Crops	Tulip Bulb Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Bulb Crops (cont'd)	Tulip Bulb Aphid (cont'd)	Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.5 kg	
		Maestro 75 DF	1.5 kg	
		Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	Trial on a few plants before large-scale application
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Bulb Rot	Quintozene 75 WP	1 kg/10 L	Bulb dip
		Maestro 75 DF	4–10 kg	Bulb dip
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	3.75–9.5 kg	Bulb dip
		RootShield Drench	120 g/L	Bulb dip
Calceolaria	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Calceolaria (cont'd)	Two-Spotted Spider Mite (cont'd)	Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 g	Suppression only
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50 WP	1.0 kg	Trial on a few plants before large-scale application
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
Carnation	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Pirliss 50 DF	500 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Malathion 50% EC	2.0 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Carnation (cont'd)	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Thrips	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 50% EC	2.0 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 50% EC	2.0 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
	Alternaria Leaf Spot	Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.25 kg	
		Maestro 75 DF	1.3–1.6 kg	
		Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
		Senator	650–850 g	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
		Rovral 50 WP	1.0 kg	Trial on a few plants before large-scale application
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Rhizoctonia Stem Rot	Quintozene 75 WP	1.25 kg	Drench
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	Drench
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	3–6 kg	Cutting dip
		Maestro 75 DF	3.25–6.5 kg	Cutting dip
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
Chrysanthemum	Aphid	Pirliss DF	500 g	
		Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Insecticidal soap	20 L	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Malathion 50% EC	2.0 L	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Chrysanthemum (cont'd)	Aphid (cont'd)	Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0-1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
	Cabbage Looper	Confirm 240 F	500 mL	
		Dipel DF	312–625 g	
		Dipel WP	0.625–1.25 kg	
		Thuricide HPC	5 L	
		BioProtec CAF	1.8 L	
	Cyclamen Mite	Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Leafminer	Avid 1.9% EC	600 mL	
		Citation 75 WP	188 g	Can be used in LVMs at 188 g/ha
		Pounce 384 EC	260 mL	
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Thrips	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Malathion 50% EC	2.0 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Decis 5.0 EC	0.35–0.5 L	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Malathion 50% EC	2.0 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Chrysanthemum (cont'd)	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 g	Suppression only
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Malathion 50% EC	2.0 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
		Pounce 384 EC	260 mL	
	Leaf Spot	Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
		Senator	650–850 g	
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.25 kg	
		Maestro 75 DF	1.3–1.6 kg	
	Ascochyta Ray Blight	Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
		Maestro 75 DF	1.3–1.6 kg	
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.25 kg	
		Botran 75% WP	925 g	
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Senator	650–850 g	
	Root Rot *Pythium/ Phytophthora*	Truban 30% WP	500–750 g 55–110 g/m^3	Drench Dry soil mix
		Truban 25% EC	300–630 mL	
		Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Rhizoctonia	Senator	650–850 g	Drench
		Quintozene 75 WP	1.25 kg	Drench
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.5 kg 3–6 kg	Soil treatment Cutting dip
		Maestro 75 DF	1.5 kg 3.25–6.5 kg	Soil treatment Cutting dip
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Rust	Nova 40W	340 g	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Cineraria	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 g	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Thrips	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Decis 5.0 EC	350–500 mL	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Enstar II	250–750 g	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 g	Suppression only
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Cineraria (cont'd)	Whitefly (cont'd)	DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Senator	650–850 g	
Cyclamen	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
	Cyclamen Mite	Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Phyton-27	1.25–2.5 L	
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Senator	650–850 g	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Cyclamen (cont'd)	*Fusarium*	Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	Drench
		Mycostop	2–10 g /100m^2 (seedling production) 5–10 mg/plant (potted plants)	
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
Exacum	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg/ha	Test on a few plants before applying to new crops
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
Foliage Plants	**Note: Due to the diversity of foliage plants and the lack of factual information on varietal damage, these recommendations are for trial use only**			
	Aphid	Pirliss 50 DF	500 g	
		Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 g	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Cyclamen Mite	Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Mealybug	Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Foliage Plants (cont'd)	Mealybug (cont'd)	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Pyrate 480 EC	200 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
	Scale	Trumpet 80 W	750 g	
		Pyrate 480 EC	2 L	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	Do not use on ferns
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		Enstar II	250–750 g	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 g	Suppression only
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Pounce 384 EC	260 mL	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Root Rot (Cuttings) *Phytophthora*	Truban 30% WP	500–750 g 55–110 g/m^3	Drench Dry soil mix
		Truban 25 EC	300–630 mL	
		Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		Aliette	2.8 kg	Foliar application
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Rhizoctonia	Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.5 kg	Soil treatment
		Maestro 75 DF	1.5 kg	Soil treatment
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	Drench

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Foliage Plants (cont'd)	Root Rot (cont'd)	RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Leaf Spots and Blights	Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
Geranium	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Mealybug	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Thrips	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Decis 5.0 EC	0.35–0.5 L	
	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Enstar II	250– 750 mL	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 g	Suppression only
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Pounce 384 EC	260 mL	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Geranium (cont'd)	Whitefly (cont'd)	DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Phyton-27	2.5 L	
		Botran 75% WP	925 g	
		Daconil 2787	2.5 L	Foliage only
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Damping-off *Rhizoctonia*	Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.5 kg	Soil treatment
		Maestro 75 DF	1.5 kg	Soil treatment
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	Drench
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
		No-Damp	10 L	
	Stem and Root Rots *Pythium/Phytophthora*	Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		Truban 25% EC	300–600 mL	Drench
		Aliette WDG	2.8 kg	Foliar spray
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Rust	Nova 40 W	340 g	
		Daconil 2787	2.5 L	Foliage only
Gerbera	Aphids	Pirliss 50 DF	500 g	
		Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 g	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Gerbera (cont'd)	Leafminer	Avid 1.9% EC	600 mL	
		Citation 75 WP	188 g	Can be used in LVMs at 188 g/ha
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Dyno-Mite 75W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
	Thrips	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	Coconut growing medium may bind Intercept, making it unavailable to plants
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 g	Suppression only
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Pounce 384 EC	260 mL	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50 WP	1.0 kg	Trial on a few plants before large-scale application
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
		Phyton 27	1.25–2.0 L	
	Powdery mildew	Nova 40 W	340 g	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Gerbera (cont'd)	Root rots *Pythium/Phytophthora*	Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
Gloxinia	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20 % EC	6 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Thrips	Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg/ha	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50 WP	1.0 kg	Trial on a few plants before large-scale application
		Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Root and Stem Rot *Pythium/Phytophthora*	Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Gypsophila	Leafminer	Avid 1.9% EC	600 mL	
		Citation 75 WP	188 g	Can be used in LVMs at 188 g/ha
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
	Thrips	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
Hydrangea	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Hydrangea (cont'd)	*Botrytis*	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Leaf Spots	Daconil 2787	2.5 L	On foliage only
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Rust	Daconil 2787	2.5 L	On foliage only
Lily (Easter)	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Dyno-Mite 75W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Thrips	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Decis 5.0 EC	0.35–0.5 L	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Lily (Easter) (cont'd)	Root Rot *Pythium*	Truban 30% WP	500–750 g 55–110 g/m^3	Drench Dry soil mix
		Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
Poinsettia	Brown Soft Scale	Trumpet 80 W	750 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Mealybug	Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	Avoid pesticide application after bract colour, as damage may occur
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	Avoid pesticide application after bract colour, as damage may occur
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Endeavor	200 g	Suppression only
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Pounce 384	260 mL	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Poinsettia (cont'd)	*Botrytis* (cont'd)	Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
		Phyton-27	1.5 L	
	Damping-off Stem Rots *Pythium*	Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		Truban 30 WP	500–750 g 55–110 g/m^3	Drench Dry soil mix
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Rhizoctonia	Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.5 kg	Soil treatment
		Maestro 75 DF	1.5 kg	Soil treatment
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	Drench
		Quintozene 75% WP	1.25 kg	Drench
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Powdery Mildew	Nova 40 W	280 g	
		Phyton-27	1.25 L	
	Stem and Root Rot *Pythium/ Phytophthora*	Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		Truban 30 WP	500–750 g 55–110 g/m^3	Drench Dry soil mix
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
		Folpan 50 WP	2.0–2.25 kg	
	Rhizoctonia	Quintozene 75% WP	1.25 kg	Drench
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.5 kg	Soil treatment
		Maestro 75 DF	1.5 kg	Soil treatment
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Erwinia	Phyton-27	1.25–2.5 L	Cutting dip
Rose	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Pirliss 50 DF	500 g	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Orthene 75% SP	850 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Malathion 50 EC	2.0 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Rose (cont'd)	Scale	Trumpet 80 W	750 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray
	Leafroller	Dipel DF	625 g	
		Dipel WP	1.25 kg	
		Thuricide HPC	5 L	
		BioProtec CAF	1.8 L	
		Confirm 240 F	1 L	
		Orthene 75% SP	850 g	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100m^3	
	Midge	Orthene 75% SP	850 g	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Thrips	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		Orthene 75 SP	850 g	
		Malathion 50 EC	2.0 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 50 EC	2.0 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	Coconut growing medium may bind Intercept, making it unavailable to plants
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 g	Suppression only
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Rose (cont'd)	Whitefly (cont'd)	Orthene 75% SP	850 g	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Malathion 50 EC	2.0 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Pounce 384 EC	260 mL	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
	Black Spot	Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
		Supra Captan 80 WDG	1.25–1.5 kg	
		Maestro 75 DF	1.3–1.6 kg	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Powdery Mildew	Nova 40 W	340 g	
		Meltatox 40% EC	2.5 L	
		Phyton-27	1.25–2.5 L	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50 WP	1.0 kg	
		Daconil 2787	2.5 L	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
		Phyton-27	1.25–2.5 L 0.8–1.0 mL/L	Foliar spray Dip flowerbud for 4 seconds shortly after harvesting
		Botran 75 W	925 g	
Snapdragon	Aphid	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Endeavor 50 WG	100–200 g	
		Pirliss 50 DF	500 g	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
	Cyclamen Mite	Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
	Fungus Gnat	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
		Vectobac 600 L	2–8 L	Drench
		Trumpet 80 W	1.25 kg	Soil surface spray

TABLE 10–2. Pesticide Recommendations — By Crop (Cont'd)

Plant Name	Problem	Recommendation by Trade Name	Rate/1,000 L (exceptions noted)	Remarks
Snapdragon (cont'd)	Shoreflies	Citation 75 WP	133 g	Drench
		Dimilin 25 WP	18–150 g	Drench or soil surface spray
	Thrips	Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg 1.25 kg	Foliar spray Soil surface spray
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Nicotine Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
	Two-Spotted Spider Mite	Avid 1.9% EC	300 mL	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	142–284 g (5–10 PVA bags)	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Kelthane 50 W	525–700 g	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
	Whitefly	Intercept 60 WP	Read label carefully	
		Dyno-Mite 75 W	284–425 g (10–15 PVA bags)	
		Enstar II	250–750 mL	
		Insecticidal Soap	20 L	
		Endeavor 50 WG	200 g	Suppression only
		Thiodan 50 WP	1.0–1.5 kg	
		Thiodan 4 EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		Endosulfan 50 W	1.0 kg	
		Thionex EC	1.25–1.75 L	
		DDVP Smoke Fumigator	1/300 m^3	
		DDVP 20% EC	6 L	
		Trumpet 80 W	0.75–1.0 kg	
		Pyrate 480 EC	500 mL	
		Malathion 25 W	2.5–5.0 kg	
		Dibrom Insecticide	10 mL/100 m^3	
	Botrytis	Decree 50 WDG	1.12 kg	Apply using high-volume or low-volume equipment at 1.12 kg/ha
		Rovral 50% WP	1.0 kg	
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	
	Stem Rot *Pythium*	Truban 30% WP	500–750 g 55–110 g/m^3	Drench Dry soil mix
		Subdue Maxx	5 mL/m^3	Soil mix at seeding and transplanting
		RootShield Drench	600–900 g	
		RootShield Granules	600 g/m^3	Soil mix
	Rhizoctonia	Quintozene 75% WP	1.25 kg	Drench
		Senator 70 WP	650–850 g	Drench

11. Pest Control Products for Outdoor Herbaceous Ornamentals

Integrated Pest Management (IPM) in Outdoor Ornamentals (Including Field-Grown Cut Flowers, Perennials and Potted Plants)

IPM in outdoor ornamental and flower crops involves the same principles used in greenhouse production. However, there are some differences.

- Monitoring is still the cornerstone of an IPM program, but there may be less reliance on the use of yellow sticky cards as an insect-monitoring tool due to wind-blown dust and debris collecting on them and limiting their usefulness. Regularly inspect crops to detect problems early. As with greenhouse-grown crops, there are large variations in the susceptibility of crops and varieties to diseases and insects. Knowing this can greatly increase the efficiency of crop inspections, by targeting first those crops that are most likely to have pests or diseases.

- In outdoor production, there is no control over the weather. Cool, damp conditions will increase the likelihood of disease outbreaks. Strong winds may result in sudden and unexpected outbreaks of insect pests that have been blown in from elsewhere. Nevertheless, the environment outside will never be as perfect for pest development as it is in a greenhouse. Variability in weather such as cool or cold nights and rain can slow the development of pests compared to a similar situation in the greenhouse.

- Biological control may not offer the same options for control as it does in the enclosed environment of greenhouses. For example, flying insects such as parasitic wasps are not constrained to stay in the crop. Predatory mites (which don't fly) may be useful, but there has been little experience with them in these situations.

- The use of pesticides outdoors also requires different thinking. Products registered for greenhouse use are not necessarily registered for outdoor ornamentals (see Table 11–1, *Insecticides/Miticides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada,* Table 11–2, *Fungicides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada* and Table 11–3, *Other Pesticides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada*). Be aware of the potential for drift into non-target areas, proximity to watercourses and ponds, and the impact on non-target organisms such as honeybees.

The other major difference between greenhouse and outdoor production of flowers and other ornamental crops is in the need for weed management.

TABLE 11–1. Insecticides/Miticides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada

Insecticides	Pests	Crops
Conserve 120 SC, Conserve 480 SC (spinosad)	Thrips and other pests (see label)	Outdoor ornamentals
Cygon 480, Lagon 480 (dimethoate)	Various insect pests (see label)	Outdoor ornamentals (see label)
Diazinon 500 E, Diazol 50 W, Diazol 50 EC, Diazinon 50 W, Diazinon 500 EC (diazinon)	Various insect pests (see label)	Various ornamentals (see label)
Dibrom (naled)	Aphids, leafhoppers, spider mites, other listed pests (see label)	Outdoor ornamentals (see label)
Dipel (*Bacillus thuringiensis kurstaki*)	Caterpillars	Woody ornamentals
Pyrate 480 EC (chlorpyrifos)	Various insect pests (see label)	Outdoor ornamental plants
Imidan 50 WP (phosmet)	Elm spanworm, gypsy moth, Japanese beetle	Outdoor herbaceous plants (see label)
Insecticidal soap	Various insect and mite pests (see label)	Outdoor flowers, ornamentals (see label)
Kelthane 50 W (dicofol)	Mites	Outdoor ornamentals
Malathion 50 EC, Malathion 25W, Malathion 50 E (malathion)	Various insect and mite pests (see label)	Outdoor flowers and ornamentals
Orthene (acephate)	Aphids, caterpillars, lacebugs, leafhoppers, psyllids, rose midge, thrips, whitefly, mealybugs, scale, spider mites	Outdoor flowers, ornamentals, shrubs, trees, rose
Pirliss 50 DF (pirimicarb)	Aphids	Outdoor ornamentals (see label)
Sevin (carbaryl)	Various insect pests (see label)	Various outdoor ornamentals (see label)
Thiodan 50 WP, Thiodan 4 EC, Endosulfan 50 W, Endosulfan 400 E, Thionex EC (endosulfan)	Various insect and mite pests (see label)	Outdoor ornamentals

TABLE 11–2. Fungicides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada

Fungicides	Diseases	Crops
Botran 75 W (dicloran)	*Botrytis*	Rose, hydrangea (outdoors)
Daconil 2787 (chlorothalonil)	Various diseases (see label)	Various outdoor ornamental crops (see label)
Decree 50 WDG (fenhexamid)	*Botrytis*	Outdoor ornamentals
Dithane DG (mancozeb)	Various foliar diseases (see label)	Woody ornamentals (see label)
Nova 40 W (myclobutanil)	Rusts, powdery mildew, leaf spots (see label)	Various outdoor ornamentals (see label)
Folpan 50 WP (folpet)	Various foliar diseases, root and stem rot (see label)	Various outdoor ornamentals (see label)
Funginex 190 EC (triforine)	Black spot of roses, powdery mildew	Outdoor ornamentals
Maestro 75 DF, Captan 80W, Captan 50 W (captan)	Foliar diseases, damping-off, bulb rot (see label)	Outdoor ornamentals listed (see label)
Rovral (iprodione)	*Botrytis, Rhizoctonia*	Outdoor ornamentals (see label)
Senator 70 WP (thiophanate-methyl)	Black spot of roses, powdery mildew	Outdoor ornamentals
Subdue Maxx (metalaxyl)	*Pythium, Phytophthora*	Outdoor ornamentals
Zineb 80 W (zineb)	*Septoria* leaf spot of chrysanthemum, snapdragon rust	Chrysanthemum, snapdragon

TABLE 11–3. Other Pesticides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada

Other Pesticides	Pest	Crops
Deadline M-Ps (metaldehyde)	Slugs	Ornamentals
SlugEm (metaldehyde)	Slugs	Nurseries
Sluggo (ferric phosphate)	Slugs	Outdoor ornamentals, nurseries

Integrated Weed Management in Outdoor Flower Production

A successful weed management program must integrate cultural and chemical weed control practices. Growers cannot depend entirely on chemical weed control in outdoor flower crops, since there is a limited spectrum of herbicides registered for these crops.

There are many ways of reducing weed problems:

1. Choose a low weed-pressure site:
   - Select fields that have fewer problem weeds, such as annuals like pigweed, ragweed and lamb's quarters, as well as perennials.
   - Grow rotational crops that reduce weeds e.g., using winter wheat in the previous year breaks the life cycle of annual weeds, and allows the use of hormone herbicides to control broadleaf weeds.
   - Grow crops with a wider choice in herbicides e.g., corn to reduce weed populations before planting flowers. Avoid persistent herbicides that may harm flower crops in future plantings.
2. Prepare the site:
   - *Identify weeds.* Watch for these weeds common in outdoor flower production: perennial weeds like quackgrass, bindweed, vetch, wild grape, perennial nightshade, thistles, ground-ivy (creeping Charlie), willowherb and burdock; and biennials like dandelions, wild carrot and biennial wormwood. Winter annuals like sow thistles, fleabanes, mustards, peppergrass, shepherd's purse and flixweed can also be a challenge because they establish through the fall.
   - *Eradicate perennial and biennial weeds.* It is important to identify and control these tough weeds in the preplanting year, because they are very difficult to control after planting. Flower crops are sensitive to many herbicides, and clean cultivation can be difficult. Apply systemic herbicides such as glyphosate (e.g., Roundup) to perennial weeds in the preplanting year. Use the recommended rate for each weed, and apply it when the weed reaches the sensitive stage of growth. Repeated cultivations of some perennial weeds such as bindweed will also provide control, but avoid dragging weeds to clean areas of the field. Use a sprayer designated solely for applying glyphosate to reduce the risk of damaging crops.
   - *Grow a green manure crop.* Cover crops like cereals, perennial ryegrass, pearl millet or Sudan-sorghum grown in the preplanting year will compete with weeds as well as improve soil structure. There are several key times to use herbicides in these crops to reduce weeds: before planting (non-selective herbicides e.g., glyphosate or Gramoxone), before plowdown, and soon after establishment of the green manure crop (short residual herbicides, e.g., 2,4-D, bromoxynil, dicamba). Avoid using herbicides that leave a soil residue to carry over into the planting year.
3. Avoid weeds in production years:
   - *Set up a stale seedbed.* This technique is useful for crops seeded or planted later in the spring. Cultivate the area as early as possible (April or early May) to encourage germination of weeds. Just before planting time, kill emerged weeds with herbicides (e.g., glyphosate, Gramoxone), flamers or steam. Plant directly into undisturbed soil to avoid bringing new weed seeds to the surface. For seeded crops, the burndown can be repeated if necessary (very carefully) just before the crop emerges.
   - *Manage weeds in row middles.* Cultivation can control weeds between the rows, but will decrease soil organic matter. Alternatively, planting grass strips between the rows will prevent weeds from becoming established. Choose a grass mixture of low-maintenance grasses that tolerate drought, like creeping red fescue or perennial ryegrass. Timely mowing can prevent weeds from seeding into crops.
   - *Prevent weed seeds.* Control weeds in field edges and adjacent areas before they set seed. Try to control weed escapes in crops before they set seed, by cultural removal or chemical mowing. Mowing at regular intervals will prevent many weeds from flowering.

4. Use many weed-control tools:

   - *Cultivation.* Generally, cultivating when weeds are small and soils are drying is most effective. Different cultivation tools work at different timings for different weeds. Rotary hoes, tine cultivators, rolling baskets, rotating disks, brushes and interplant cultivators may be effective in flower crops. Frequent hand hoeing when weeds are tiny can be quick and effective.

   - *Hilling.* Row crops like gladioli benefit from regular hilling to provide support for the plant as well as weed control.

   - *Mowing.* Small mowers can manoeuvre around many plants to mow weeds down. This can be very effective to prevent weed flowers and seeds, but mowing does not eliminate weed competition for moisture. Weed whips are very useful for selective cutting, both with a blade and a string attachment.

   - *Flamers.* Equipment that directs a hot propane flame to kill weeds can be very effective. Driving speeds at 5–10 km/hr are required to avoid damage to the crop, so fields need to be designed with straight rows and large turning areas. Hand-held flamers are also available.

   - *Mulching.* A thick layer of mulch can prevent weed germination and conserve soil moisture. Apply weed-free mulch after planting, but before weeds emerge. Use plastic mulch under short-term crops, and planters to plant through the plastic. Dark plastic gives the best weed control, although other colours may have other uses. Biodegradable plastics avoid the problem of disposal after use. Straw mulch can work well, but be sure to provide enough nitrogen for the plants as it decomposes. Pull the mulch away from the base of the plant to discourage rodents over winter. Nursery ground-cover fabric can be especially useful for weed control in outdoor potted plant production, because it is long-lasting, provides drainage and is not as slippery as plastic. It provides a weed-free area, is durable and easy to keep clean. Weeds will establish on the edges of all mulches, so regular edge weeding is necessary.

   - *Herbicides.* Table 11–4, *Herbicides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada*, shows a selection of herbicides registered for use on outdoor ornamental crops in Canada. Select a herbicide registered as safe on a crop, and apply it as directed on the label. Keep a separate sprayer for herbicides, and wash it out properly between uses with a tank cleaner like Agral 90. Sprayers with shrouds can prevent herbicides from contacting the crop, and other drift-reducing technologies like air-induction nozzles may be useful. Wick wiper applicators (either hand-held, tractor or ATV-mounted) can control weeds by wiping concentrated herbicides like glyphosate directly on weeds. This can be very effective at controlling small patches of new weeds. Alternatively wait until flowering stage of perennial weeds like thistle or milkweed. Take care before treating weeds not to drip herbicide on the crop.

Note: Rotation of herbicide families is important to minimize the building up of seed from weed escapes, including triazine-tolerant weeds. Rotation will also help avoid an accumulation of herbicide residues in the soil that may result in crop injury over a period of years and may hinder replanting.

TABLE 11–4. Herbicides Registered for Use on Outdoor Ornamental Crops in Canada

Herbicides	Weeds	Crops	Comments
Basamid (dazomet)	PRE Germinating weed seeds	Outdoor flowers, ornamentals	• apply to weed-free soil • do not use below 6°C
Bonanza 400, Treflan EC (trifluralin)	PPI annual grasses and broadleaf weeds (see label)	Perennials and woody ornamentals (see label)	• incorporate shallowly in two directions within 24 hours of application • place transplants' roots below treated layer
Dacthal W75 (chlorthal)	PRE Various including lamb's quarters, crabgrass, lovegrass, carpetweed, witchgrass, purslane, foxtail, common chickweed (see label)	Outdoor ornamentals (see label)	• apply to weed-free soil
Devrinol 50 DF, Devrinol 2 G, Devrinol 10 G (napropamide)	PRE weed control (see label)	Outdoor flowers, ornamentals (see label)	• apply to weed-free soil • requires 1 cm of rainfall or irrigation within 7 days (spring or fall) or 2 days (summer) to prevent breakdown by sunlight
Kerb 50 WSP	PRE Quackgrass, annual grasses, chickweed (see label)	Iris, peony, ground covers (see label)	• apply to weed-free soil • best in cool, moist soil
Roundup	PRE Broad spectrum weed control (see label)	Prior to planting on all crops	
Simadex, Simanex 80 W (simazine)	PRE Various broadleaf weeds and annual grasses	Woody ornamentals and nursery stock (see label)	• apply to weed-free soil • repeated applications may leave soil residues that damage subsequent crops
Venture L (fluazifop)	POST Grass weeds (see label)	Outdoor ornamentals (see label)	• apply to actively growing grasses • do not cultivate for 5 days • test on a few plants for tolerance

PPI — preplant incorporated; PRE — preemergent; POST— postemergent

12. Appendices

APPENDIX A. Ontario Ministry of Agriculture and Food Floriculture Advisory Staff

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A complete list of Ontario Ministry of Agriculture and Food advisory staff is available on the ministry Web site at www.omaf.gov.on.ca.

APPENDIX B. Ontario Ministry of the Environment Pesticides Control Offices

Region/County	Address	Telephone/Fax
Central Region Toronto, Halton, Peel, York, Durham	5775 Yonge Street, 8th Floor Toronto, Ontario M2M 4J1	Tel (416) 326-6700 Toll free 1-800-810-8048 Fax (416) 325-6347
West-Central Region Haldimand-Norfolk, Niagara, Hamilton-Wentworth, Dufferin, Wellington, Waterloo, Brant	Ontario Government Building 119 King Street West, 12th Floor Hamilton, Ontario L8P 4Y7	Tel (905) 521-7640 Toll free 1-800-668-4557 Fax (905) 521-7820
Eastern Region Frontenac, Hastings, Lennox & Addington, Prince Edward, Leeds & Grenville, Prescott & Russell, Stormont/Dundas & Glengarry, Peterborough, Victoria, Northumberland, Renfrew, Ottawa-Carleton, Lanark, District of Nipissing (Townships of Airy, Murchison, Dickens, Lyell and Sabine)	133 Dalton Avenue Kingston, Ontario K7L 4X6	Tel (613) 549-4000 Toll free 1-800-267-0974 (in Eastern region only) Fax (613) 548-6908
Southwestern Region Elgin, Middlesex, Oxford, Essex, Kent, Lambton, Bruce, Grey, Huron, Perth, Simcoe	659 Exeter Road, 2nd Floor London, Ontario N6E 1L3	Tel (519) 873-5000 Toll free 1-800-265-7672 Fax (519) 873-5020
Northern Region East Manitoulin, Nipissing, Parry Sound, Sudbury, Algoma East, Cochrane East, Haliburton, Muskoka	199 Larch Street, Suite 1101 Sudbury, Ontario P3E 5P9	Tel (705) 564-3249 Fax (705) 564-4180
Northern Region West Kenora, Rainy River, Thunder Bay, Algoma West, Cochrane West	435 James St. S., Suite 331 Thunder Bay, Ontario P7E 6S7	Tel (807) 475-1712 Toll free 1-800-875-7772 Fax (807) 475-1754
Standards Development Branch	Pesticides Section 40 St. Clair Avenue West, 7th Floor Toronto, Ontario M4V 1M2	Tel (416) 327-5519 Fax (416) 327-2936
Approvals Branch	Pesticides Licensing 2 St. Clair Avenue West, 12A Floor Toronto, Ontario M4V 1L5	Tel (416) 314-8001 Toll free 1-800-461-6290 Fax (416) 314-8452

APPENDIX C. Tissue Testing and Accredited Soil Testing Laboratories in Ontario

The following labs are accredited to perform analyses on greenhouse media and nutrient solutions. Contact the lab for the listing of analytical tests available.

Company	Address		Contact
Agri-Food Laboratories 503 Imperial Road, Unit #1 Guelph, Ontario N1H 6T9	Tel (519) 837-1600 1-800-265-7175 Fax (519) 837-1242	Web www.agtest.com E-mail lab@agtest.com	Dale Cowan Nora Wilson
Stratford Agri Analysis Inc. (A Daco Laboratories Ltd. Company) 1131 Erie Street, Box 760 Stratford, Ontario N5A 6W1	Tel (519) 273-4411 1-800-323-9089 Fax (519) 273-4411	E-mail saa@dacolabs.com	Dale Peters Keith Lemp

There is no official accreditation in Ontario for tissue analysis, but all of the accredited soil testing labs are monitored for proficiency on tissue analyses.

APPENDIX D. Other Contacts

UNIVERSITY OF GUELPH
Main Campus, Guelph, N1G 2W1
Tel (519) 824-4120
Web site www.uoguelph.ca

Alfred College, Alfred, K0B 1A0
Tel (613) 679-2218
Web site www.alfredc.uoguelph.ca

Kemptville College, Kemptville, K0G 1J0
Tel (613) 258-8336
Web site www.kemptvillec.uoguelph.ca

Ridgetown College, Ridgetown, N0P 2C0
Tel (519) 674-1500
Web site www.ridgetownc.uoguelph.ca

Department of Plant Agriculture
Web site www.plant.uoguelph.ca

Department of Plant Agriculture, Kettleby
1125 Woodchopper's Lane, R.R. # 1
Kettleby, L0G 1J0
Tel (905) 775-3783

Department of Plant Agriculture, Simcoe
Box 587 Blue Line Road
Simcoe, N3Y 4N5
Tel (519) 426-7127

Department of Plant Agriculture, Vineland
Box 7000, 4890 Victoria Avenue North
Vineland Station, L0R 2E0
Tel (905) 562-4141

Lab Services Division
Web site www.uoguelph.ca/labserv/

Pesticide and Trace Contaminants
P.O. Box 3650, 95 Stone Road West,
Guelph, N1H 8J7
(519) 767-6200

Pest Diagnostic Clinic
(519) 767-6256

AGRICULTURE & AGRI-FOOD CANADA

Research Centres
Eastern Cereals and Oilseeds Research Centre
960 Carling Avenue
Ottawa, K1A 0C6
Tel (613) 759-1952
Web site http://res2.agr.ca/ecorc/index_e.htm

Greenhouse and Processing Crops Research Centre
Harrow N0R 1G0
Tel (519) 738-2251
Web site http://res2.agr.ca/harrow/

Southern Crop Protection and Food Research Centre
Web site http://res2.agr.gc.ca/london/index.htm
1391 Sandford Street
London N5V 4T3
Tel (519) 457-1470

Vineland Research Farm
4902 Victoria Avenue North
Vineland L0R 2E0
Tel (905) 562-4113

Delhi Research Farm
Box 186 Schafer Road
Delhi N4B 2W9
Tel (519) 582-1950

CANADIAN FOOD INSPECTION AGENCY
Web site www.cfia-acia.agr.ca

Regional Offices (Plant Protection)
Belleville, 345 College Street East
Belleville, K8N 5S7
Tel (613) 969-3333

Brantford
Federal Building, Dalhousie & Queen St.,
P.O. Box 637
Brantford, N3T 5P9
Tel (519) 751-8157

Hamilton, 709 Main Street West, Suite 101
Hamilton, L8S 1A2
Tel (905) 572-4152

London
1200 Commissioners Road East, Unit 19
London, N5Z 4R3
Tel (519) 691-1300

Niagara Falls
Mailing address: R.R. 1, P.O. Box 7,
Niagara on the Lake, L0S 1J0
Street address: 14154 Niagara River Parkway, Unit 5
Niagara-on-the-Lake
Tel (905) 262-5331

Ottawa District
38 Auriga Drive, Unit 8
Ottawa, K2E 8A5
Tel (613) 274-7374

Toronto
401 Champagne Drive, Unit 1
Downsview, M3J 2C6
Tel (416) 954-1714

Windsor
441 University Avenue West, Suite 208
Windsor, N9A 5P9
Tel (519) 252-7095

APPENDIX E. Diagnostic Service

Samples for disease diagnosis, insect or weed identification, nematode counts and Verticillium testing can be sent to:

Pest Diagnostic Clinic
Laboratory Services Division
University of Guelph
95 Stone Road West
Guelph Ontario, N1H 8J7
Tel: (519) 767-6256
Fax: (519) 767-6240
E-mail: pdc@lsd.uoguelph.ca
Web site: www.uoguelph.ca/pdc

Payment must accompany samples at the time of submission. Submission forms and updated fee schedules are available at the clinic's Web site.

How to Sample for Nematodes

Soil

When to Sample

Soil and root samples can be taken at any time of the year that the soil is not frozen. In Ontario, nematode soil population levels are generally at their highest in May and June and again in September and October.

How to Sample Soil

Use a soil sampling tube, trowel or narrow-bladed shovel to take samples. Sample soil to a depth of 20–25 cm (8–10 in.). If the soil is bare, remove the top 2 cm (1 in.) prior to sampling. A sample should consist of 10 or more subsamples combined. Mix well. Then take a sample of 1/2–1 L (1 pint–1 quart) from this. No one sample should represent more than 2.5 ha (6.25 acre). Mix subsamples in a clean pail or plastic bag.

Sampling Pattern

If living crop plants are present in the sample area, take samples within the row and from the area of the feeder root zone (with trees, this is the drip line).

Number of Subsamples

Based on the total area sampled:

500 m^2 (5,400 ft^2)	10 subsamples
500 m^2–0.5 ha (5,400 ft^2–1.25 acre)	25 subsamples
0.5 ha–2.5 ha (1.25–6.25 acre)	50 subsamples

Roots

From small plants, sample the entire root system plus adhering soil. For large plants, dig 10–20 g (1/2–1 oz.) fresh weight from the feeder root zone and submit it.

Problem Areas

Take soil and root samples from the margins of the problem area where the plants are still living. If possible, also take samples from healthy areas in the same field. If possible, take both soil and root samples from problem and healthy areas in the same field.

Sample Handling

Soil Samples

Place in plastic bags as soon as possible after collecting.

Root Samples

Place in plastic bags and cover with moist soil from the sample area.

Storage

Store samples at 5–10°C (40–50°F) and do not expose them to direct sunlight or extreme heat or cold (freezing). **Only living nematodes can be counted. Accurate counts depend on proper handling of samples.**

Submitting Plants for Disease Diagnosis or Identification

Sample Submission Forms

Carefully fill in all of the categories on the form. In the space provided, draw the most obvious symptom and the pattern of the disease in the field. It is important to include the cropping history of the area for the past 3 years and this year's pesticide use records.

Choose a complete, representative sample showing early symptoms. Submit as much of the plant as is practical, including the root system, or several plants showing a range of symptoms. If symptoms are general, collect the sample from an area where they are of intermediate severity. **Completely dead material is usually inadequate for diagnosis.**

With plant specimens submitted for identification, include at least a 20–25 cm sample of the top portion of the stem with lateral buds, leaves, flowers or fruits in identifiable condition. Wrap plants in newspaper and put in a plastic bag. Tie the root system off in a separate plastic bag to avoid drying out and contamination of the leaves by soil. Do **NOT** add moisture, as this encourages decay in transit. Cushion specimens and pack in a sturdy box to avoid damage during shipping. Avoid leaving specimens to bake or freeze in a vehicle or in a location where they could deteriorate.

Delivery

Deliver to the Pest Diagnostic Clinic as soon as possible by first class mail or by courier at the beginning of the week.

Submitting Insect Specimens for Identification

Collecting Samples

Place dead, hard-bodied insects and spiders in vials or boxes and cushion with tissues or cotton. Place soft-bodied insects and caterpillars in vials containing alcohol. Do not use water, as this results in rot. Do not tape insects to paper or send them loose in an envelope.

Place live insects in a container with enough plant "food" to support them during transit. Be sure to write "live" on the outside of the container.

APPENDIX F. The Metric System

Metric Units

Linear Measures (length)

10 millimetres (mm) = 1 centimetre (cm)
100 centimetres (cm) = 1 metre (m)
1,000 metres = 1 kilometre (km)

Square Measures (area)

100 m x 100 m = 10,000 m^2 = 1 hectare (ha)
100 ha = 1 square kilometre (km^2)

Cubic Measures (volume)

Dry Measure

1,000 cubic millimetres (mm^3) = 1 cubic centimetre (cm^3)
1,000,000 cm^3 = 1 cubic metre (m^3)

Liquid Measure

1,000 millilitres (mL) = 1 litre (L)
100 L = 1 hectolitre (hL)

Weight-Volume Equivalents (for water)

(1.00 kg) 1,000 grams = 1 litre (1.00 L)
(0.50 kg) 500 g = 500 mL (0.50 L)
(0.10 kg) 100 g = 100 mL (0.10 L)
(0.01 kg) 10 g = 10 mL (0.01 L)
(0.001 kg) 1 g = 1 mL (0.001 L)

Weight Measures

1,000 milligrams (mg) = 1 gram (g)
1,000 g = 1 kilogram (kg)
1,000 kg = 1 tonne (t)
1 mg/kg = 1 part per million (ppm)

Dry–Liquid Equivalents

1 cm^3 = 1 mL
1 m^3 = 1000 L

Metric Conversions

5 mL = 1 tsp
15 mL = 1 tbsp
28.5 mL = 1 fl. oz.

Application Rate Conversations

Metric to Imperial (Approximate)

litres per hectare x 0.09 = gallons per acre
litres per hectare x 0.36 = quarts per acre
litres per hectare x 0.71 = pints per acre
millilitres per hectare x 0.015 = fluid ounces per acre
grams per hectare x 0.015 = ounces per acre
kilograms per hectare x 0.89 = pounds per acre
tonnes per hectare x 0.45 = tons per acre

Imperial to Metric (Approximate)

gallons per acre x 11.23 = litres per hectare (L/ha)
quarts per acre x 2.8 = litres per hectare (L/ha)
pints per acre x 1.4 = litres per hectare (L/ha)
fluid ounces per acre x 70 = millilitres per hectare (mL/ha)
tons per acre x 2.24 = tonnes per hectare (t/ha)
pounds per acre x 1.12 = kilograms per hectare (kg/ha)
ounces per acre x 70 = grams per hectare (g/ha)

Liquid Equivalents

Litres/Hectare	*Approximate Gallons/Acre*
50 L/ha =	5 gal./acre
100 L/ha =	10 gal./acre
150 L/ha =	15 gal./acre
200 L/ha =	20 gal./acre
250 L/ha =	25 gal./acre
300 L/ha =	30 gal./acre

Dry Weight Equivalents

Grams or Kilograms / Hectare	*Ounces or Pounds /Acre*
100 g/ha =	1½ oz./acre
200 g/ha =	3 oz./acre
300 g/ha =	4¼ oz./acre
500 g/ha =	7 oz./acre
700 g/ha =	10 oz./acre
1.10 kg/ha =	1 lb./acre
1.50 kg/ha =	1¼ lb./acre
2.00 kg/ha =	1¾ lb./acre
2.50 kg/ha =	2¼ lb./acre
3.25 kg/ha =	3 lb./acre
4.00 kg/ha =	3½ lb./acre
5.00 kg/ha =	4½ lb./acre
6.00 kg/ha =	5¼ lb./acre
7.50 kg/ha =	6¾ lb./acre
9.00 kg/ha =	8 lb./acre
11.00 kg/ha =	10 lb./acre
13.00 kg/ha =	11½ lb./acre
15.0 kg/ha =	13½ lb./acre

Conversion Tables — Metric to Imperial

Length

1 millimetre (mm) = 0.04 inch
1 centimetre (cm) = 0.40 inch
1 metre (m) = 39.40 inches
1 metre (m) = 3.28 feet
1 metre (m) = 1.09 yards
1 kilometre (km) = 0.62 mile

Area

1 square centimetre (cm^2) = 0.16 square inch
1 square metre (m^2) = 10.77 square feet
1 square metre (m^2) = 1.20 square yards
1 square kilometre (km^2) = 0.39 square mile
1 hectare (ha) = 107,636 square feet
1 hectare (ha) = 2.5 acres

Volume (dry)

1 cubic centimetre (cm^3) = 0.061 cubic inch
1 cubic metre (m^3) = 1.31 cubic yards
1 cubic metre (m^3) = 35.31 cubic feet
1,000 cubic metres (m^3) = 0.81 acre-foot
1 hectolitre (hL) = 2.8 bushels

Volume (liquid)

1 millilitre (mL) = 0.035 fluid ounce
1 litre (L) = 1.76 pints
1 litre (L) = 0.88 quart
1 litre (L) = 0.22 gallon (Imp.)
1 litre (L) = 0.26 gallon (U.S.)

Weight

1 gram (g) = 0.035 ounce
1 kilogram (kg) = 2.21 pounds
1 tonne (t) = 1.10 short tons
1 tonne (t) = 2,205 pounds

Pressure

1 kilopascal (kPa) = 0.15 pounds/in.^{2}

Speed

1 metre per second = 3.28 feet per second
1 metre per second = 2.24 miles per hour
1 kilometre per hour = 0.62 mile per hour

Temperature

°F = (°C × 9/5) + 32

Conversion Tables — Imperial to Metric

Length

1 inch = 2.54 cm
1 foot = 0.30 m
1 yard = 0.91 m
1 mile = 1.61 km

Area

1 square foot = 0.09 m^2
1 square yard = 0.84 m^2
1 acre = 0.40 ha

Volume (dry)

1 cubic yard = 0.76 m^3
1 bushel = 36.37 L

Volume (liquid)

1 fluid ounce (Imp.) = 28.41 mL
1 pint (Imp.) = 0.57 L
1 gallon (Imp.) = 4.55 L
1 gallon (U.S.) = 3.79 L

Weight

1 ounce = 28.35 g
1 pound = 453.6 g
1 ton = 0.91 tonne

Pressure

1 pound per square inch = 6.90 kPa

Temperature

°C = (°F – 32) × 5/9

Handy Metric Conversion Factor

Litres per hectare x 0.4 = litres per acre
Kilograms per hectare x 0.4 = kilograms per acre

Abbreviations

% = per cent (by weight)
ai = active ingredient
AP = agricultural powder
cm = centimetre
cm^2 = square centimetre
DG = dispersible granular
DF = dry flowable
DP = dispersible powder
E = emulsifiable
e.g. = for example
EC = emulsifiable concentrate
F = flowable
g = gram
Gr = granules, granular
ha = hectare
kg = kilogram
km/h = kilometres per hour
kPa = kilopascal
L = litre
m = metre
m^2 = square metre
mL = millilitre
mm = millimetre
m/s = metres per second
SC = sprayable concentrate
SP = soluble powder
t = tonne
W = wettable (powder)
WDG = water dispersible granular
WP = wettable powder

Emergency and First-Aid Procedures for Pesticide Poisoning

For a major spill, a theft or a fire involving a pesticide call the Ministry of the Environment at **1-800-268-6060.**

For pesticide poisonings and pesticide injuries call the Poison Information Centre:

Toronto	1-800-268-9017
Ottawa (Bilingual)	1-800-267-1373
Hearing Assistance (TTY)	1-877-750-2233

PREVENT ACCIDENTS

- **Read the label**. Follow all the precautions the label recommends. Read the First Aid section of the label BEFORE you begin to handle any pesticide.
- **Make sure that someone knows** what pesticides you are working with and where you are.
- **Keep a file of labels and product Material Safety Data Sheets (MSDS) for the pesticides you use**. Make sure everyone knows where to find this in case of an emergency.
- **Post emergency numbers near all telephones.**
- **Keep clean water, paper towels, extra gloves and clean coveralls close by** in case you spill pesticide on yourself.

If someone has been working with pesticides and you see any possible symptoms of pesticide poisoning or injury, take emergency action immediately.

IF AN ACCIDENT OR POISONING HAPPENS

- Protect yourself from injury first.
- Stop the exposure to the pesticide. Move the victim away from the contaminated area.
- Check the 4 basic facts — identify the pesticide, the quantity, the route of entry and time of exposure.
- Call an ambulance or the Poison Information Centre.
- Start first aid. This is not a substitute for professional medical help.
- **Provide the label, MSDS sheet or container to emergency personnel** at the scene — or take it with you to the hospital. Do not transport pesticide containers in the passenger compartment of the vehicle.

FIRST AID

If a pesticide comes in contact with skin:

- remove all contaminated clothing; wash skin thoroughly with lots of soap and warm water
- dry skin well and cover with clean clothing or other clean material.

If pesticide comes in contact with eyes:

- hold eyelids open wash the eyes with clean running water for 15 minutes or more.

If pesticide was inhaled:

- move the victim to fresh air and loosen tight clothing
- give artificial respiration if the victim is not breathing.

Do not breathe in the exhaled air from the victim — you could also be poisoned.

If a pesticide was swallowed:

- **call the Poison Information Centre IMMEDIATELY.**

Emergency numbers are listed at the front of each Bell telephone directory.

For information, or to obtain copies of this or any other ministry publication please:
call 1-888-466-2372 from within Ontario, (519) 826-3700 from outside the province or OMAF's TTY line at (519) 826-7402 for the hearing impaired, email your request to *products@omaf.gov.on.ca*, or visit OMAF's Web site at *www.omaf.gov.on.ca*.

A complete list of all OMAF products and services, and order forms, are available on the Web site. Orders can be faxed to (519) 826-3633 or mailed to Government Information Centre, OMAF, 1 Stone Road West, Guelph, Ontario N1G 4Y2.

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